GAZETTEER

OF THE

DELHI DISTRICT.

1883-4.



Compiled and published under the authority of the PUNJAB GOVERNMENT.

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PREFACE.

The period fixed by the Punjab Government for the compilation of the Gazetteer of the Province being limited to twelve months, the Editor has not been able to prepare any original matter for the present work; and his duties have been confined to throwing the already existing material into shape, supplementing it as far as possible by contributions obtained from district officers, passing the draft through the press, circulating it for revision, altering it in accordance with the corrections and suggestions of revising officers, and printing and issuing the final edition.

The material available in print for the Gazetteer of this district consisted of the Settlement Reports, and a draft Gazetteer, compiled between 1870 and 1874 by Mr. F. Cunningham, Barrister-at-Law. Notes on certain points have been supplied by district officers; while the report on the Census of 1881 has been utilised. Of the present volume, Section A of Chap. V (General Administration), and the whole of Chap. VI (Towns) have been for the most part supplied by the Deputy Commissioner; Section A of Chap. III (Statistics of Population) has been taken from the Census Report; Mr. Carr Stephen's work has been largely drawn upon for the Archæology of Delhi and its suburbs; while here and there passages have been extracted from Mr. Cunningham's compilation already referred to. But, with these exceptions, the great mass of the text has been taken almost if not quite verbally from Mr. Maconachie's Settlement Report of the district.

The draft edition of this Gazetteer has been revised by Messrs. T. W. Smyth, G. Smyth, Maconachie, Carr Stephen, Parker, and Delmerick, and by the Irrigation Department so far as regards the canals of the district. The Deputy Commissioner is responsible for the spelling of vernacular names, which has been fixed throughout by him in accordance with the prescribed system of transliteration.



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DELHI.

CHAPTER I.

THE DISTRICT.

SECTION A.—DESCRIPTIVE.

The Delhi district, is the central of the three districts of the Delhi division, and lies between north latitude 28° 12' and 29° 13', and cast longitude 76' 51' and 77' 35'. It consists of a long General description. narrow strip of country running along the right bank of the Jamma. Its greatest length north and south is 76 miles; its average breadth is 18 miles, the broadest place being opposite the city of Delhi, where it measures nearly 26 miles. It is bounded on the north by the Panipat tilisil of the Karnal district; on the east by the river Janua, which separates it from the Mirath and Bulandshahr districts of the North-West Provinces; on the south by the Palwal talisit of the Gurgion district; and on the west by the Samplah, Gohanah, and Jhajjar taksils of Rohtak and the Sadr taksil of Gurgáon. It is divided into three tabsils, of which that of Ballabgarh lies to the south, that of Delhi in the centre, and that of Sunipat to

Some leading statistics regarding the district, and the several talisils into which it is divided, are given in Table No. I on the opposite page. The district contains two towns of more than 10,000 souls, namely:-

> Delhi 173,393 13,077 Sunipat

The administrative head-quarters are at Delhi, which is situated about the centre of the eastern border of the district, on the right bank of the Janna, and on the Sindh, Panjab and Delhi Railway. Delhi stands 31st in order of area and 12th in order of population among the 32 districts of the province, comprising 1.01 per cent. of the total area, 341 per cent. of the total population, and 8:35 per cent. of the urban population of British territory.

Т	OWD.		. N. Lalilude	R. Longitude.	Feet above sca-lavel.
Delhi Eurspat Ballabgarh	•••	***	280 20. 540 90. 580 30.	77° 17' 77° 4' 77° 23'	707 720* 700*

The latitude, longitude, and height in feet above the sea of the principal places in the

district are shown in the margin.

The tract thus limited, though exhibiting none of the beauties of mountainous districts, possesses a considerable diversity of physical This it owes feature, and in parts is not wanting in picturesqueness.

The hills and the river.

Chapter I, A.

Descriptive.

[.] Approximate.

Chapter I, A. Descriptive. The hills and the river.

to the hills and to the river. The former, which at the southern end join on to the hills of Mewat and so meet with the Aravalis, at the other start from the river at Wazirábád, four miles north of Delhi, and skirting the present city on the north-west and west, stretch away nearly due south to Mahrauli. Before reaching this place, how ever, they branch out into two halves, one going full south, the other sweeping round in a curve to the south-east to Arangpur, whence again it turns south-west, and uniting with the other branch below Bhátí, holds on southward to Kot, and so out of the district into Gurgaon. But though the main direction may thus be described, there are here and there irregularly shaped spurs which break the continuity of the range, and at the same time greatly extend its area. The irregular oval enclosed by the branching halves above spoken of is really a plateau of a light, sandy soil, lying high and dry, but with a very useful general slope to the south-east. Here in different places are earth work dams aggregating several miles in length, made

to catch the drainage. Of these more will be said further on.

The hills of Delhi, though not attractive in themselves, give a pleasant view across the Jamna, and in clear weather allow, it is said, even a glimpse of the Himalayas. Their surface is generally bare, supporting little or no vegetation save a stunted likar (Acacia Arabica), or karil (Capparis aphylla), or the small bush of the beri (Zizyphus nummularia) which, with its prickly thorn, is so inhospitable to the foot traveller. The surface of the ground is sprinkled with thin laminæ of mica, which shine in the sunlight like gold. The stone, which juts up from the ground here and there, is hard and often sharp-edged. Water of course lies very deep, and irrigation water of course lies very deep, and irrigation to the sharp-edged. by well almost everywhere impracticable. A moderate pasture is obtained by flocks of sheep and goats herded by Gújar boys. This tribs has appropriated almost entirely the hill villages, as they suit their pastoral traditions, and pastoral traditions are less repugnant than a settled husbandry to thieving, a habit universally attributed to the Gújar. The highest point of the range probably is near beides 1,045 feet above the sea and 360* above the Jamna railway bridge The breadth varies greatly. At Arangpur it is not less than ten miles, while towards the northern end the hills dwindle into a mere rocky ridge, only a few yards broad. That 'Ridge, however, since the memorable hot weather of 1857, is a name not likely to be forgotten by Englishmen. The hills divide the district into two ports Without going minutely into details, it may be said that this larger half of the district also the more fertile and more populous. consists of three parts, the Khadar or riverain of the Jamna, the district into two parts. Bángar or level mainland, and the Dábar or lowland subject to floods. The Khadar lies rather low, has a light sandy soil, and easy

The Khádar and Bángar.

The Bangar is higher, and by nature, drier. The Western Jamna Canal, however, traverses its whole length and affords too copious irrigation from wells.

^{*} Making the bridge itself 685 feet above the level of the sea. The highest recorded flood of the river at this point was 673.7 feet. The sun-dial in the Fort at Delhi gives 825 feet, but this is somewhat too high.

irrigation, which has produced a sad effect on the appearance of the The most casual observation during a ride across the country. Bángar would show hundreds of acres whitened or half whitened by the destructive reh or shor. The soil is naturally more fertile and productive than that of the Khádar, being of a firmer consistency. The country is cut up in every direction by water-courses. Nearly on the boundary of the Khadar and the Bangar the Great Trunk Road runs almost due north up to the end of the district.

The Dabar lies to the west of the hills, and consists of the low ground or basin secoped out by their westward drainage, and the floods of the Sahibi naddi, which comes down through Gurgaon from Alwar. In the rainy season the country is under water for many miles round Chhaolah and the villages near it: as the rains subside and the cold weather comes on, the greater part of the floods is carried off into the Jamná by the Najafgarh jhil escape, but the jhil itself, except in years of drought, covers a great many acres with the residuum, which lies in a hollow south of the villages of Báhlol-

pur, Dahrí, and Zainpur.

If, as seems probable, the drainage of the hills hollowed out the Najafgarh jhil, so too the division of the Khadar and Bangar was doubtless caused by the erratic wandering of the Jamná from its ancient bed. The river enters the district at a height of some 710 feet, and leaves it at about 630 feet above the level of the sea, with a course within the Delhi limits of rather over 90 miles, and an average fall of between 10 and 11 inches to the mile. The general direction is nearly due south. In the floods of the rainy season the river has a considerable breadth, swelling in places to several miles, with a maximum depth of some 25 feet. In the cold weather its normal depth is said to be four feet only; the stream is only sufficient to supply the three canals which draw from it (the Eastern and the Western Jamná, and the Agra Canal) and is then fordable in many places. The banks of the river are generally low, and the bed sandy, but there is said to be "a bed of firm rock" under the site of the Agra Canal weir at Okhlah. Religious reverence is due to the Jamná from the Hindú, though in a less degree than to the Ganges. It passes close under the Fort at Delhi, and it must always have rounded the eastern point of the rocky 'Ridge' at Wazírábád. But in the northern part of the district it appears formerly to have had a course much to the west of that which it holds at present. The drainage channel, called the Budhi nalá, which comes down under the very doors of Sunipat, would seem by the conformation of the country to have been the old bed of the Jamna, and this is supported by strong and general tradition. The course of the Budhi marks off the division of the country into Khadar and Bangar. The Khadar which, as might be supposed, lies low, may be defined as the soil which at some time or other lay either under the river or to the east of it.* The Bángar in old times lay immediately to the west of the

Chapter, I, A. Descriptive. The Khádar and

Bángar.

The Dábar.

The Jamná.

^{*} An interesting evidence of this is the elongated slip-like shapes of most of the eastern Bángar villages. They evidently abutted on the river, and part of their areas is made up of the Khádar land deserted by it. But east of this again the land is slightly higher, also favouring the theory of a sudden change to the east.

Chapter I, A.

Descriptive.

The Jampá.

stream, and the ascent of the old bank is in most places plainly visible. How or when the river changed its course is not known; but there seems some probability that the change was violent rather than a gradual one. The physical conformation above alluded to favours this; while some countenance is also given to it by the fact that the shapes of the village areas in the Khadar do not at all suggest a gradually elongating boundary, as would probably be the case had the river gradually receded. Nor is the latter supposition rendered likely by the circumstances, so far as known, of the origin of those villages. It may at any rate be considered certain that the river once flowed beneath the walls of Sunipat, and down south by Narelah, to somewhere near Azadpur on the Grand Trunk Road near Delhi, where, beginning to feel the influence of the hills, it must have turned sharply to the east. Below Delhi its course seems to have been in the same way immediately east of the Bangar bank. This, in the immediate vicinity of the city, abuts almost directly on the stream where it now runs; the soil is hard, high, and in many places rocky. The Khadar, after reappearing in the fertile lowlands of Indarpat and Ghayáspur, is again cut off at Okhlah, where the Bángar bank juts boldly forward, giving an advantageous site for the head of the Agra Canal. For some few miles below this the ground continues the same, but then the old river would seem to have taken again a more westerly course than the present—to have passed close by the ancient village of Tilpat: then turning again south-east along a nola still visible, to have rounded closely the high bank on which the Khádar-Bángar villages in this part mostly stand. From Gharorah to Chansah this line is very conspicuous. The Khadar south of Delhi is thus a very narrow slip of country, often only a single village in breadth.

South division of the District.

The country immediately south of Delhi as far as Mahrauli, Toghlakábád, and Molarband, is rocky and undulating. This and the picturesque ruins abounding almost everywhere give the scene an interest not often found in the plains of India. Beyond this again to the south, the country lying between the hills to the west and the Khadar already described on the east becomes more flat and open, and so fit for the passage down the eastern side of its length of the Agra Canal, which keeps an almost perfectly straight course at a low level down into the Palwal tahsil. Parallel with it, roughly speaking, is the metalled road to Agra which passes through Ballabgarh, at a distance of 22 miles from Delhi. The soil of this part is mostly a light, sandy loam, which, under good hands, is very fairly productive. The country between the Agra Road and the hills to the west begins to get level a few miles below Badarpur; it is mostly sandy, bearing the detritus from the hill slopes, and in the rainy months is marshy and in places flooded—the passage of the water is toward the south, where it debouches at the top of the Palwal tahsil. The drainage of the Delhi district, as may be easily seen from

Southern drainage lines.

the map, is divided completely by the hills, and may be separately considered in these two portions. The drainage of the southern part is simple. There are three main outlets for the north Ballabgarh drainage, in its rush down eastward from the hills to the river—the

Barahpulah, Tekhand, and Burhiya naddis. The general flow of these water-courses, which is too violent in flood to be of much use in irrigation, is to the east; but here and there, owing to local peculiarities of soil, their course is changed, and they go sometimes east, sometimes south. The Barahpulah drains the slopes of the hilly villages north-east of Mahrauli, and crossing the Agra Road nuder a fine bridge (from the number of arches of which it takes its name), runs into the Khadar just south of Humayuu's tomb. The Tekhand middi drains the lands west of Mahrauli, crosses the road about four miles below the Barahpulah, runs over the canal by a superpassage 2) miles below Okhlah, and then runs southward into the river. The Burhiva naddi drains the whole of the hills lying in the vicinity of Arangpar to its south-west and south. It is larger than the Tekhand nalá, and in flood it is sometimes violent enough to stop the passage of travellers at the point where it crosses the Mathrah Road, which is unbridged. The south Ballabgarh drainage runs more decisively south-east. The torrents and drainage channels on this part beginning from the north are as follows:-

(I.) There is a small channel issuing from the hills, south of the village Moolah Maharajpur, which comes down on to the low

ground of Fatchpur Chaudilah.

(2.) A much larger stream, called the Parsaun, comes down from the Badhkhal hill on the same low ground in Fatchpur Chandilah, a little to the south of the other. It crosses the Agra Road under a bridge, and fills the tank at Faridabad. Thenceforward it divides; one branch of the watercourse goes down the old imperial road toward the Majesar lands, and then turns eastward on to Sihi. The second goes more directly to Sihi, passing by the ábádí of that village, and so on near Súrat Ram's garden to Ballabgarh. Thence it crosses the main road again on to the low ground of Rauherah. Before the Agra Canal was dug, the water used to spread over the fields of Majheri and Chandaoli.

- (3.) A third channel descends from the hills south of Badhkhal through the Danlatabad land, and round to the south through Ajraunda into the limits of Majesar village. There it splits up into two streams; the main one, passing between the two abadis of Majesar, passes through the west lands of Ballabgarh on to Ranherah jhil; the other passes north of Majesar into Sáran; some water too from this nalá comes down on the south lands of Daulatábad, through Minarú to Sáran, and meets the last named stream in the dahar of Gaunchhí village.
- (4.) Another stream comes down from the hills on the confines of Bhánkrí and Pálí on to the Dabná lowlands, then through Gházípur and Naglah Gújarán, touching the south-west corner of Sáran, and falls into Gaunehhí dahar. When in heavy flood it does not stop there, but passes on to Shamápur.

(5.) There is a stream locally known as Bhandwanbaj which

comes down south of the last named on to Kheri Gujar.

(6.) The sixth torrent comes out of the Pálí hill. Passing by the south of the ábádí of that village, it goes to Kherí like the other.

Chapter I, A.

Descriptive.

Southern drainage

lines.

CHAP. I.—THE DISTRICT.

Chapter I, A. Descriptive. Southern drainage lines.

(7.) Another nalá comes down from the hills near Kothrah Muhabatábad. It. passes to the north of Pakal, and touches the north of the Nekpur lands joining with Nos. 5 and 6 in Kheri. 6 of Naglah, and the north of Koreishipur, it goes through Sarirpur of Naglah, and the north No 2 and 4 in Shamonur and Madalpur, and joins No. 3 and 4 in Shamapur. Thence, moistening the lands of Tharsetli, Kandhaoli, and Kailgaon, it passes through Naglah, Jogian, Harphalah, Maholah and Kabulpur Bangar This nalá comes out of the hills under Mangar; it is in-

juriously violent, and when in flood brings down a large body of water. Its line lies close by Dhauj, Tikri Kalan, Firozpur Kalan, Tadhiann into the shall of Kabilana Ranger. out of the district.

The last naddi is the one issuing from under Kot. This is Ladhiapur into the thil of Kabulpur Bangar. nearly as bad as Mangar nald when in flood, and damages the lands of the villages through which it flows when it comes down in heavy rains; it passes through Alampur, Sarohi, Khoi-Jamalpur, Bijupur into the marsh at Sarmatla in Palwal and thence on to the jhill of Khalilpur. Of all of these the most violent are No. 8, the Mangar one,

No. 3 from Badhkhal and No. 9 from Kot in the order named. There is no perennial stream, however; and except in the rainy season the effects are seen only in the undulating character of the ground, here and there cut into more clearly marked channels, the permanent moisture of the lower lands, and in a few villages, a pool of standing. moisture of the fower famus, and in a real value of the cold water which, though in dry seasons it disappears altogether, in wet ones water which, though in dry seasons it disappears altogether, in the cold unpleasantly flooded between swells into a jult or marsh of considerable size. Sarmatla on the border of Palwal, and Ballabgarh; and duck can be generally shot on the ponds near Gaunchi throughout the winter months. As instanced above the Agra Canal has materially alternated months. As instanced above, the Agra Canal has materially altered weather the road is the drainage of the east half of the Ballabgarh tahsil. now no room for any considerable length of drainage flow on that There is an escape dug from the canal south of Tilpat opposite the place where the water of the Burhiya naddi comes in, and this meanders on in a slimy shor-mixed stream through the low Khadar north of Bhopani on toward Bhaskaula, where it gets a doubtful exit into the river. The want of drainage here is shown in the prevalence of shor, which more or less affects all the land lying in this

Turning to the drainage north of the hills, and beginning at the fur-Turning to the drainage north of the district, the first drainage line that draws notice is the hills.

The short of the Rudhi mala mentioned shows which runs down the channel of the Budhi nald mentioned above, which runs down almost due south, on the east side of the Bangar chak.

This comes down to within a few miles of Dalhi but in the letter part of its down to within a few miles of Delhi, but in the latter part of its course it becomes very serpentine, and hence is called there the Nag It has no clear outlet, but is partly intercepted by the Ganga Toli escape, dug from the canal 13 miles above Delhi chet of motor policies. sheet of water near Bhalswah Jahangirpur marks the continuation of this channel, which sooner or later it is hoped will be There are outlets for the drainage from the west dug into this channel near Jagdispur and Ladpur below Sunipat; but no outlet exists for the water when it comes there, except a very cleared out again.

irregular passage down by Pitampura, which does not do its work at all properly. Besides this nalá the Khádar has a depression, well defined in some parts, blocked up by enlitvation in others, running down from Kheri Taga, with a fork on one side through Pipli Kherá, and another through Rámnagar. Between Dhatúri and Malikpur the channel is well defined, but in Murthal it grows doubtful, appearing again in a perfect net-work of hollows and sinuous depressions in Kunashpur, Dipálpur, and Kheorah. Henceit takesa turn rather more south-east, and joins a nalá of the river at Jakhauli. From the large pond in Pipli Kherá, a small trench (it can hardly be called a ditch) has been dug for a considerable distance to the south-east to carry off the rain water, but it has not been vigorously followed up or kept in repair, and so is of little practical use. It may be asked what is the need of drainage channels in the Khadar, where the water-supply is never too abundant; but this remark supposes a greater power of absorption in the soil than actually exists. As a nuatter of faet the Khádar does need drainage, though in comparison with the Bangar not so much. There are not a few places in the Khadar where rch or shor is apparent, especially under the lee of the Grand Trunk Road. This work forms in some places a band several feet above the level of the adjacent country, and necessarily impedes the passage of the rain drainage toward the river. It is true there are scientific bridges at different places, but the breadth of water-way was, it would seem, intended to be enough to proteet the road, rather than specially to allow free unimpeded passage of the drainage.

But the damage done in this way by the Grand Trunk Road is a mere trifle, compared with the grievous injury that has been for many years going on in the Bángar, by reason of the bad alignment of the Western Jamná Canal, and want of proper provision for drainage of the rain water and surplus moisture from irrigation.

The alignment of the eanal, as it has stood for some fifty years since its reconstruction, is throughout a great part of its course in this district in a valley; and in order to allow of irrigation on the higher grounds receding from its side, its bed has been raised so as to be not seldom higher than the adjacent fields. Percolation has been of course immense. Then the distributaries have hitherto been constructed on the same principle, without any thought of economy of land or water. The water-eourses often interseet each other and often run parallel side by side for long distances. It is not wonderful therefore that the damage done by water-logging is immense, and in places all but irretrievable. With the best system of drainage possible, and the best eare and attention in watching over and enforcing that system, it will be a long time before the Bangar recovers itself. One branch of the drainage of the Delhi Bangar runs down to the west of Bali Kutabpur, then south south-west to Pugthallah on through the two Bajanas, and so into Rohtak to meet with the other lines at the Najafgarh jhil. Another depression systematised into a drainage cut starts from Júán, and goes south south-west by Salemsar Majra and Mahipur, and so like the other out of the district. A third runs due south from Bhatgáon through Nirthan; a fourth crosses the line of the Canal at Bhadanah

Descriptive.

Drainage north of the hills.

Drainage of the canal tract,

Chapter I, A. Descriptive.

Drainage of the canal tract.

and Jharauti with, as may be imagined, a terrible effect; while a fifth, a very important line, runs due south from the two Thánahs by Nizámpur Khurd, Kutabgarh, and passes between the two large villages Ládpur and Kanjháolah with a course to the south-west into Rohtak. A sixth lies south-east of Púth Khurd and goes through Sáhibábád, Daulatpur, Rithálah (a large part of whose lands is simply marsh) and Magholpur Khurd, crossing the Rohtak road about a mile east of Nángloi Jat, and falling into the Najafgarh jhál in the limits of Nángloi Saiyad. These drainage lines are not mere depressions scientifically determined to be such: they are patent to an ordinary observer riding over the ground if he carefully watches the lie of the land, and two things that always are affected by this, the character of the cultivation and condition of the soil. Except the last line the lower part of the channels lies in Rohtak, where they come in at the top of the Najafgarh jhil.

On the other side of the canal the directions of the drainage. flow are perhaps not so clear, but still they may for the most part be made out. One small line goes down between Ahulanah and Atael; another larger one runs south-east from Khúbru through Shekhpurah and Aghwanpur; a third from Dabarpur in the same direction through Máhrá in the Khádar below Shahzádpur. The outlet of these three is clear, or might be made so, into the Budhi nalá mentioned above. But below this there is more difficulty. There is a flow south-east from Juan, but it gets obstructed somewhere about the road where it passes through Barwasni, and but little water passes on to Mailanah, though that seems the natural direction. About Rohat there is almost a basin, and the escape dug nearly due east to Nasírpur Bángar at present does but little good. It appears to be used to take off superfluous canal water rather than for relieving the neighbourhood by drainage. Further down there is a sinuous depression below Katlupur, passing through the north-east lands of Bowanah round by Sanauth into the Gangah Toli escape. This escape was dug possibly to take off the surplus water of the canal, and not for drainage purposes, though its direction is shaped so as partly to serve them. It carries off some water from Sanauth and Razapur Kalan, and then running sharp to the south turns again to the east at the Grand Trunk Road, which it crosses a mile south of Alipur, and thence on in the same direction to Garhi Khusru and the nalá running past Burári.

The Najafgarh jkil,

The western lines, as has been already said, converge on the jhil below Najafgarh. There are two main passages into this: one to the north of Jharaudah and east of Dicháon comes into the low-lands at Nawádah Hashtsal; the other and larger body of drainage comes in between Mandelah Khurd and Bákargarh, running southeast to Pindwála Kalán, and meeting the large jhil below Chhaolah. The main jhil lies to the south-west and west of this, and is fed, as already noted, by the Sáhibi drainage from Gurgáon and the flow of hill water on the west side of the Delhi hills. This last comes down in several places; the most distinct lines perhaps are those lying about Dábri and Pálam.

A more particular account of the Najafgarh jhil considered in its revenue and irrigation aspects will be found in Mr. Maconachie's Settlement Report. It is sufficient to note here that the ar

drained by it is estimated at 3,072 square miles, and its water surface with a depth of 12 feet in the water gauge at Nának Heri is 56,657 acres or about 88½ square miles.* In 1833 its area was estimated at 52½ square miles, but the time of the year this refers to does not appear. Its outlet is a drain passing with a muddy sluggish flow to the north-east by Kakraula, Nilanthi, and Basei across the Rohtak road about three miles west of Delhi, and emptying itself into the Jamná just above the village of Wazírábád.

Chapter I, A. Descriptive.

Canal.

The Western Jamua Canal has for many years been a factor The Western Jamua of enormous power in determining the condition of the zamindár in a large and densely populated portion of the district. It appears that the Dehli Canal is a work of considerable antiquity, certainly some centuries old; and the tradition of the country-side says that after eopious and long continued irrigation, the Bangar chak of the district became ruined with rel, that the canal was given up, and people took to wells, or to dependence on the rainfall to nourish their erops. About the year 1815 the canal water was re-introduced. In an official document of the time it was noted that several persons were ready to contract to do the exeavation and clearing work necessary for this purpose, but a "work so dignified, so popular, and so beneficial, should not fall to the share of any but the Government." It was estimated that one lakh yearly for three years would cover the expenses of the scheme, the result of which it was hoped would be to bring under cultivation "vast tracts now deserted." Lieutenant Blaine, the officer in charge of the work, was called away to the field by the Goorkha war; but operations must have been pushed on without great delay, for in 1819 the eanal was running. After this no information is available before 1838, when a systematic elearance was made, and once again before the Mutiny. At the Regular Settlement in 1842 little damage from water-logging seems to have been noticed or even apprehended. But in 1856, remissions for shor began, and others were made in 1858, and since then the subject has been one of constant anxiety to all officers acquainted with the state of the Moderate irrigation and good drainage are all that are wanted to restore the Bangar of Delhi to the beautiful fertility described by John Lawrence about forty years ago, as allowing one "to ride for miles as through a highly cultivated garden." But every year's delay in bringing these measures into operation makes the remedy hoped for more difficult.

The existence of the evil of reh and its extensive impoverishment of the soil are too well known now to require to be dwelt on at length.+ It is really impossible to tell in places how far the damage has spread. Here and there ruin unmistakeable, bare and perhaps complete, is apparent. Whole tracts of land, formerly most productive, are lying barren; white with the saline efflorescence when dry, or when wet, foul with a stagnant and sickening vapour that, once perceived, is characteristically distinguishable, and is at

* In 1856-57 this gauge showed 15' 11", which would give a much larger area; but the capacity of the jhil has been ascertained only up to 12 feet on the gauge.

[†] For the last conclusion arrived at by experts on the subject of reh, reference should be made to the "Report on the deterioration of land by reh in the Aligarh District, North-Western Provinces," by a Committee held in 1878,

Chapter I, A. Descriptive.

Reh.

times so strong in its odour as to give the sense of being eaten like food. At this point there is no doubt of the damage. But there is a second stage, reached before the final ruin, wherein the corners of fields look unhealthy; perhaps they have a few stunted stalks on them, perhaps they are quite bare. The middle of the field which has a crop, has also here and there small patches of white or barren soil, telling too clearly of the diminished yield. But the effect of several of these patches, irregular in shape, and scattered in diverse quarters, is to make any estimate of the produce of the field very There is, however, even before the second stage an uncertain. inceptive one, where the devastation has only just begun. Here no shor is apparent on the surface of the soil, but the unhealthy look of the crop, or it may be (as in wheat), a kind of withered precociousness in the ears, shows that things are not as they should be. The fields, to a casual glance, bear their usual variegated burden of yellow and white and green; but the zamindár knows to his cost that the curse has come upon him.

Rainfall, temperature, and climate. Table No. III shows in tenths of an inch the total rainfall

Year.	Tenths of an inch.
1862-63	532
1863-64	855
1864-65	284
1865-66	295

registered at each of the rain-gauge stations in the district for each year, from 1866-67 to 1882-83. The fall at head-quarters for the four preceding years is shown in the margin. The distribution of the rainfall throughout the year is shown in Tables Nos. IIIA and IIIB, while Table No. IV gives details of temperature for each

of the last 14 years, as registered at head-quarters. The average rainfall for the whole district during the 12 years, 1869—1879, is, This is the result of carefully abstracting the monthly returns published in the Punjab Gazette, but it is curious when compared with the larger rainfall in Pánipat, and the larger rainfall on the other side in Gurgáon, which certainly has the reputation of being a thirsty tract as compared with this district. The tahsil. averages do not help in the matter, as Delhi has a larger figure than the others; thus, Sunipat gives 22.7, Delhi 25.5, Ballabgarh 21.3 At pages 12 to 14 will be found an analysis of the annual rainfall for the above 12 years, arranged according as it affects the autumn or the spring harvest, or both. The climate of the district is what might be anticipated from its position, as lying between the plains of the Punjab and those of the more tropical parts of Bengal. The cold weather is much like that of the Punjab, and there is a bleak north-west wind which makes the temperature seem lower than it actually is. On the other hand, the hot weather begins sooner by a good fortnight, though the nominal dates for commenceing and leaving off pankhás are the same as those of Lahore. Tents become unpleasant after April 1, when, if the season is a normal and favourable one, the hot wind buh begins. During the succeeding months, down to the middle or end of June, the west wind should blow moderately and equally. A violent west wind is hurtful to the crops, while an east* wind is unhealthy for

^{*&}quot; If the east wind blow in Jeth, that is bad. If a Jat (mount and) make a horse to dance, that is bad. If a Brahmin take to wearing a knife, that is bad."

men. The four months, Phágan, Chait, Baisákh, and Jeth make up the the Kharsa season—the dry months. Then comes the Chaumása—the four rainy months—Asarh, Sáwan, Bhádon, Asoj. In this period plentiful rain is expected and wished for, especially in Bhadon.* In Asoj, however, it is getting too late for cotton and til.† The air then, if the west wind blows, is fresh and healthy; the east wind is very debilitating and is said to produce boils and fever. Asoj brings us on to October, when the nights are beginning to get cool. Then comes the feverish season, which is always bad in Delhi, but during the last few years has been so fatal as in some parts to materially diminish the population. The canal villages, which might be thought most likely to suffer, have not been distinguished lately in this way. Towards the end of November or the beginning of December matters begin to improve, for the jara or cold season has well begun. The four months-Kátik, Mangsir, Poh, Magh—bring us round again to the Kharsa. Rain is almost unknown in November, but is thought good for husbandry in December, as if there is no rain, there will be heavy work for the oxen in watering the young rabi crops, and in Poh, though late, it is better than nothing.

Tables Nos. XI, XIA, XIB, and XLIV give annual and monthly statistics of births and deaths for the district and for its towns during the last five years, while the birth and death-rates since 1868, so far as available, will be found in Chapter III for the general population, and in Chapter VI under the heads of the several large towns of the district. Table No. XII shows the number of insane, blind, deaf-mutes, and lepers as ascertained at the Census of 1881; while. Table No. XXXVIII shows the working of the dispensaries since 1877. In the district Census Report for 1881, the Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows:—

"The sanitary condition of most of the villages is as bad as it can possibly be. Each village is surrounded by dung-hills, and by one or more stagnant pools. In most houses the families and the cattle sleep in the same quarters, and the water of the wells is frequently 'brackish, or largely impregnated with organic matter. The district has seldom been visited by cholera, and the mortality from this disease has never been very high, but the villages and smaller towns suffer greatly from periodic epidemics of fever, which cause great mortality."

The only peculiarity in the way of disease in the district is the Delhi boil. The causes of this sore are as yet not known

†" If it rains in Asoj, the til won't give (good) oil, nor cotton trees (good)

† "With rain in Mangsir, the wheat will be of good colour." § "If watering is not given in Mangsir, surely a thief has earried off the oxen." || "If it rains in Poh, there will still be something of a crop, full or thin."

Chapter I, A.

Descriptive.

Rainfall, temperature, and elimate.

Discase.

Delhi Boil,

^{*} There are many sayings in the popular vocabulary exemplifying this: "If it rains in Har, it will make (the country) prosperous." "The showers of Savan are filled with pearls." "(In) the showers of Savan, dry and moist (soil) all becomes green." "If it rains in Bhadon, then both harvests will be (good):" while heat for Jeth and rain for Bhadon are pithily indicated as desirable in the forcible lines:— "Talk as a rule is good, but not too much; silence is good, but not too much. Rain is good, but not too much; sunshine is good, but not too much. But the more we get the better of rain in Bhadon, or sun in Jeth, or talk in our story-tellers, or silence in our wives."

Chapter I, A.
Descriptive. Rainfall, temperature, and climate.

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Statement of Rainfall in the Delhi District from 1867 to 1879.—(Continued.)

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Rainfall, temperature, and climate.

Chapter I, A. Descriptive:

Rainfall, tempera-ture, and climate.

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but the best local opinions point to a scorbutic origin. Some years ago in the Indian Medical Gazette there appeared a memorandum by Lord Mark Kerr, sounding a pean over the supposed fact that "at the end of eight years" (after his Lordship's return home from India in 1864) "the disorder has almost entirely disappeared from Delhi." Inquiry was instituted by the Sanitary Commissioner with the Government of India, but the reply received did not show any evidence either one way or another. There had been no donbt a decided temporary decrease, but it was not as yet certain to be permanent, and conclusions were considered premature.* At the City Dispensary in Delhi the annual average of cases treated for this disease for five years (1875—79) was 37.

In the villages irrigated by the Western Jamna Canal the standard of health and vitality is materially lower than elsewhere, (see further Chapter III, Section A). This fact attracted the attention of Government as long ago as 1847, when a Committee was appointed to inquire into the sanitary state of irrigated districts. The Medical Officer, Dr. Dempster, in his memorandum forming part of the report, showed that in many villages of this part, 75 per cent of the people had disease of the spleen, and that the average proportion of the persons thus diseased to the total population of the villages examined during the inquiry, was nearly 50 per cent. In 1867 another inquiry was instituted by the Government of India, and the results reported by Dr. A. Taylor, Civil Surgeon of Delhi. This report has been printed (Selections from the Records of the Government of the Punjab and its Dependencies, New Series, No. VI). Dr. Taylor showed clearly the presence of an unusual amount of spleen disease, and its close connection with the degrees of swampiness and want of drainage found in various parts. The villages "enjoying the greatest advantages" of irrigation were almost invaria-

* The Punjab Sanitary Commissioner, when called on for opinion and facts, said that there was great doubt as to the latter, consequently an opinion induced from them would be premature. He evidently inclined to the opinion, however, that the disease could be said only to be in abeyance. The cases in the Dispensary, though less than half in 1870 and 1871 as compared with the five years before, had in the earlier months of 1872 again mounted up to nearly their former numbers.

The following medical description of the sore has been furnished by Lala Ram

Kishendás, Assistant Surgeon in charge of the City Dispensary at Delhi :—

"This disease is similar in its nature to Biskra Button, Aleppo cvil, Lahore sore, Mooltan sore, &c.; it would be better, therefore, to call all of these by a common name; and the designation 'Oriental sore,' proposed by some writers, is the most appropriate. It attacks persons of all ages and positions in life and both sexes indiscriminately, but children between the ages of five and ten seem most liable to it. Depraved nutrition from climatic influences is relieved to be the cause of its production, but the exact nature of these influences is unknown.

"It attacks generally the most exposed parts of the body, e.g., the face, forearms, hands, legs, and feet, but has been seen on the chest, abdomen, and other parts generally covered as well. It commences as a papular cruption, attended with itching, soon followed by a crushed pustule and ultimately by irregular ulceration, which may last any length of time, but which, so far as I have seen, never destroys the deeper tissues. There is no certain cure for it: strong caustics sometimes eradicate it by destroying the nucleated cells contained in the meshes of the tissues attacked. There are several stimulating and astringent native remedies in vogue as specifics for the sore, but I have never seen any material benefit arising from them. Change to a better climate has appeared beneficial to troops suffering from it. Its pathology is under dispute; some observers of authority say it is of a parasitic origin, while others of equally high reputation deny this altogether."

Chapter I, A.

Descriptive.

Delhi Boil.

Health of canal villages.

Geology, Fauna and Flora.

Chapter I, B. bly those where the debilitating disease assumed its most prominent While drawing a sad picture of the state of the people, he alludes to the improved drainage of the Najafgarh tract, and shows that, while in 1845 the splenic enlargements were 43 per cent., in. 1867 they were only 5.37. The flood level had sunk three feet,

Alleged evil effects of canal water.

and the aspect of the people was healthy and robust. Besides fever, the zamindárs of the canal villages complain that copious irrigation of the land brings with it, though they do not On this point information is of course very doubtful: the earliest report on the matter, that of Mr. Sherer (Selections from the Records of the Government of India in know how, impotence in the men. the Public Works Department No. XIII) expressed the same opinion. "The unfruitfulness of women in canal villages is a subject of "common remark, and the consequent difficulty of inducing other Jak "families to give their daughters to the men of Panipat, and the "iamines to give their daughters to the men of Lampat, and that "environs of the canals generally, is very great." Dr. Taylor heard that sexual incapacity existed greatly among men, but that women were not barren in the same proportion. The local belief is the same; and it is said in addition that the women are generally more healthy Two reasons are given—the women come from other villages—often villages not irrigating from the canal, and so have a healthier stock to begin with. Secondly, they work more This sounds strange, and is only half true; but there is no doubt that the women in the canal villages look less lazy and than the men. demoralized than the men, who are indeed a very degenerate race.

SECTION B.—GEOLOGY, FAUNA, AND FLORA.

cology.

Our knowledge of Indian geology is as yet so general in its nature, and so little has been done in the Punjab in the way of detailed replaced investigation that it is impossible to discuss the detailed geological investigation, that it is impossible to discuss the local geology of separate districts. But a sketch of the geology of the province as a whole has been most kindly furnished by Mr. Medligett Superintendent of the Goological Suprem Medicott, Superintendent of the Geological Survey of India, and is published in extenso in the provincial volume of the Gazetteer The mines of the district are thus returned in the Administra-

Mines and minerals.

tion Report:—Chalk mines at Kasumpur and Arangpur, the former series, and also as a separate pamphlet. leased by the villagers for Rs. 300 a year, the latter not worked at reased by the villagers for his. Down a year, the latter how young 933,000 various villages, yielding 933,000 various villages, process of Ringkanli maunds annually, worth some Rs. 8,000; bajri mines at Binskauli and Raisingh righting annually 1 000 maunds worth Re 950. nine maunas annually, worth some as 0,000; out names at Dalling annually 1,000 maunds, worth Rs. 250; nine and Raisinah, yielding annually 1,000 mounds worth Rs. 1 265; a crystal mine stone mines yielding 4,950 maunds, worth Rs. 1,265; a crystal mine at Arangour not worked at present The quantities here stated are probably unreliable. The noticeable minerals therefore of the district, providing unreadure in a stone, crystal, kankar and chalk; though it is so far as known, are stone, crystal, kankar and chalk; though it is so far as known, are stone, crystal, kankar and chalk; though it is so id the crief of the hills readers the existence of the hills. at Arangpur, not worked at present. said the quartz-like formation of the hills* renders the existence of

mctamorphism."

^{*} Their scientific description is given as follows:— bedding, and the associated of the ridges, indicate advanced of A core of quartzite with more or less vertical bedding, and the associated the ridges, indicate advanced as as far as they are exposed on the flanks of the ridges, indicate advanced as far as they are exposed on the flanks of the ridges. "A core of quartzite with more or less vertical bedding, and the associated with more or less vertical bedding, and the associated the ridges indicate advanced to the flanks of the ridges, indicate advanced metamorphism."

gold not impossible, and the known presence of crystal at Arangpur has been recently alluded to as favouring the probability.

The quartz-like kind of stone is hard, and not easily worked, except for uses not requiring delicate shape. It is seen at its best in many of the old buildings round Delhi, where it fitly harmonises with the sembre dignity of the Pathan style. For the Agra Canal a considerable quantity was used, but for the new Delhi Branch, the softer and more malleable Agra stone has been preferred. There is also a sandstone found in the hills near Ballabgarh, which is soft and looks handsome when worked up. The Raja's palace, now the talisil at Ballabgarh, shows some very pretty pieces of this work in pillars and arches.

The only place where crystal has been brought, to the surface is in the limits of Arangpur, a hill village about two miles south of Delhi. A mine here was first started, it is said, a hundred years ago by the Raja of Ballabgarh, who spent a good deal of money in getting out and sending for sale a supply of the mineral. Most of the pieces, however, were small octagonal blocks of no great commercial value, and after this one attempt the Raja gave up the enterprise and closed the mine. After the Mutiny a Khatri of Delhi took a contract for working it; but after spending some Rs 1,500 in trying to find the crystal, gave up the attempt and his contract also. The locality of the mine is rather inaccessible; it lies to the south-west of the village, which itself is a collection of huts, at a considerable distance from the main road. Dr. Thompson, in his report on rock crystal mines says that "the crystal does not occur in its primitive position, "but in asecondary deposit of silicious breccia, very highly impregnated "with iron; each crystal is cased in a sheath of hæmatite. As we "go downwards the rock becomes less ferruginous, and lower still is "met with in pieces of pure quartz, embedded in a matrix of almost " nure white clay."

Kankar* is found more or less extensively throughout the district. In Sunipat it is not regularly worked, but in nine villages it has been found, and doubtless might be obtained, if needed, in a good many more. In Delhi tahsil 33 villages produce it, chiefly in the subcolline and marshy parts. In Ballabgarh 22 villages are shown as producing it. Very little digging is required to reach the beds, and in some of the channels of the hill streams it comes out on the surface. The chief element in its cost is that of carriage and transport to the place where it is required for use. It is not appropriated for roads in this district so exclusively as in others, where it is the only material available. Macadamite is also used, and the station roads are many of them laid with bajri, a reddish gravelly kankart found in the beds of hill torrents and such like places. Bajri is cheaper than kankar, but is not so durable, and softens more under heavy rain.

Chapter I, B. Geology, Fauna, and Flora.

Stone.

Crystal.

Kankar.

[&]quot;* A calcarcous concrete consisting of carbonate of lime in irregular kind of foliated pieces." ("Panjab Products," p. 141.)
"† Disintegrated gneiss," as Mr. Baden-Powell says, p. 39, "Punjab Products."

Thapter I, B. eology, Fauna, and Flora. Chalk

Chalk is either worked, or known to exist in Kasumpur Mahrauli, Malikpur Kohí, and Arangpur. It is dug out of a rude mine made by sinking a shaft 30 or 40 feet deep, and five or mine made by shiking a shall ou or to help and nice or six feet in diameter, and then making tunnels in all directions in diameter, and then making tunnels in all directions in diameter, and then making tunnels in all directions in all directions in the six feet in diameter, and then blocks (dalld or dlift), that horizontally at the bottom. The blocks (dalld or dlift) are turned out whole, are sold on the spot; the smaller pieces are turned out whole, are sold on the spot; the washed and there washed and there washed and there washed and there washed and the washed and there washed and there washed and there washed and there washed and the washed are taken to the Walchah will are taken to the washed and the washed and the washed are taken to the washed and the washed and the washed and the washed are turned at the washed and the washed and the washed and the washed and the washed are turned as a sold of the washed and the washed and the washed and the washed are turned as a sold of the washed and the washed and the washed are turned as a sold of the washed and the washed and the washed are turned as a sold of the washed and the washed and the washed are turned as a sold of the washed and the washed and the washed are turned as a sold of the washed and the washed are turned as a sold of the washed and the washed are turned as a sold of the washed and the washed are turned as a sold of the washed and the washed are turned as a sold of the washed as .18 (tilvyá) are taken to the Malchah village, and there washed and dried, and then sold for whitening. The local idea makes stone true, and then sold for whitening. fuse into chalk by a kind of subterranean ignition. The product is of some value: in the village of Kasúmpur, the lease of the chalk mines has for some years past brought in an income of over Rs. 300, nines has for some years past brought in an income of washing, and on the average. The expenses of excavation, carriage, Rs. 15-6 per making up into cakes for market sale, are estimated at Rs. 15-6 per 100 mounds the backs price of which is about Rs 20* 100 maunds, the básár price of which is about Rs. 30.* Salt is not now made anywhere in the Delhi district, though

Salt.

Paltpetre.

Trees.

it used to be in certain Khadar villages, where the marks of the Saltpetre is occasionally made earth-peds (sar) are sum evident. Dampetre is occasionally been in different parts. During the last ten years 30 licenses have been earth-beds (sar) are still evident. Coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil of the so

well wooded throughout, but in many parts the trees are abundant enough to give a pleasant variety to the landscape, or enough to give a pleasant representation of the country from an elevated snot. given for this purpose in 15 villages. bird's-eye view of the country from an elevated spot gives an effect not unlike that of an English park. In other parts, particularly not unlike that of an english park. Noisfrorh and in the inferior in the hills, in the marshy lands near Najafgarh, and in the inferior parts of the Khádar, trees are scarce, and there is nothing to relieve. the monotony of the prospect. Along the Western Jamna plantate fine avenues of shisham have sprung up on the banks of the tions of kikar and shisham have sprung up on the banks of the tions of kikar and shisham have sprung up on the banks of the tions of kikar and shisham have sprung up on the banks of the tions of kikar and shisham have sprung up on the banks of the tions of kikar and shisham have sprung up on the banks of the tions of kikar and shisham have sprung up on the banks of the tions of kikar and shisham have sprung up on the banks of the tions of kikar and shisham have sprung up on the banks of the tions of kikar and shisham the tions of kikar and the tio tions of kikar and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of The Mathrah road is not well shaded, nor, except (Acacia Arabica) In uncultivated lands these are specially found. In Sunipat, for instance, the hot commonest trees are the well-known and jal (Panjabi pilu or van Salvadora oleoides). names these are specially found. In Sumpat, for instance, there hot woody stretches of the jal extending for miles, and in the lost woody stretches of the jal extending been poor, hundreds, almost weather, especially if the rabi crop has been poor, seen feeding and thousands of the more destitute classes are to be seen feeding thousands. Agra Canal. thousands, of the more destitute classes are to be seen (Figus relitations by turns in the stunted groves. (Azadárarachta Indica). Indica) farásh (Tamaria Indica) giosa), farásh (Tamaria (Molin commercia and Alah (Ruten from (Figure Indica)) guesa), Jurash (Lamarus Thunca), with (Azauratuchia Thunca), from (Melia sempervirens), dhák (Butea from (Melia sempervirens), and found in many dosa) and hér (Zizamhais inimha) are indicanous and found in many (Figure 1ndica), bakarn (Mena sempervirens), anak (Butta many and found in Mena sempervirens), anak (Butta many and found in Mena are indigenous and found in Acacia (Capparis aphylla), kluir (Acacia (Capparis aphylla), kluir (Balanites Annotiaca), and himaot (Balanites Annotiaca), and himaot (Balanites aphylla) ident (Seshamia, Annotiaca). places, as also the business Kurt (Jappurts appropriate), int (Sesbania Egyptiaca), and hingot (Balanites in discount in tiaca). It is doubtful whether objections and simile are indicensus in It is doubtful whether shisham and siris are indigenous in

^{*} The zamindars do not dig the chalk themselves; they lease the right to strangers, Cooly labour at this work erally men of low caste, living in the neighbourhood. and 2 or only 15 annals appears for the dioper working down below, and 2 or only 15 annals appears for the dioper working down below. * The zamindars do not dig the chalk themselves; they lease the right to strangers, work generally men of low caste, living in the neighbourhood. Cooly labour at this anna fetchs 21 annas per diem for the digger working down below, and 2 or only 12 for the lighter work on the surface. tiaca.)

[†] These are:

Sunipat—Rámpur, Kundal, Pináná, Nizampur.

Sunipat—Rámpur, Malakpárzer, Najhfgarh. Kar.

Delhi—Dindhása, Malakpárzer, Najhfgarh.

Delhi—Bhopáni, Jaik alias Unchágáon,

Delhi—Bhopáni, Jaik alias Biloch.

Ballabgarh—Bhopáni, Fatehour Biloch.

Ballabgarh—Aghwánnur. Fatehour for the lighter work on the surface. pánda, Aghwánpur, Fatehpur Biloch.

the sense of not having been introduced from other parts; they grow well only where they get more than natural moisture. In canal villages a common tree is the jamoù or jamoù, which appears to be a variety of the jaman—the natives call it as a synonym chotá jáman. This tree grows on the side of small watercourses on the edges of fields, reaches a height of 50 or 60 feet, and has a dark fresh foliage like the jáman. The fruit is very inferior. The fruit-trees found in the more favoured spots are numerous and good. Some gardens near Delhi produce mangoes of a delicious flavour: the jámans (Sizyqium jambolanum) are not bad; while oranges, peaches, plums of sorts, lemons, pomegranates, guavas, figs, alúchás (Prunus domestica), indi (Tamarindus Indica), &c., are also found.

One or two plants seem to deserve mention here on account of their importance to the agriculturist as a source of income, or as afford-

ing valuable material for various agricultural purposes.

(1.) The singleded or water-nut. (Trappa bispinosa) grows in ponds and pools of standing water in many parts of the district. It is said, however, that the water must be clean (an expression to be interpreted according to Jat rather than English ideas,) and the sail of the bed of the pond should not be under the influence of rel. The long stalks of the plants reach up to the surface of the water (in which they grow), and upon which float their green leaves, and their pure white flowers expand beautifully among them in the latter part of the afternoon. The nut grows under water after the flowers decay, and is of a triangular shape, and covered with a tough brown integrment adhering strongly to the kernel, which is white and esculent, and of a fine cartilaginous tex-They ripen in the latter end of the rainy season and are estable till November. The best plants are then (Hindú month Kútik) left for seed: in Mangsir the cultivators break the nuts off and put them in matkas, keeping the vessels always filled with water, changing it every other day. In Magh they take the seed to a pond, and throw it in broad-cast; or if the water is scarce they sow it in beds (kiáris) with water standing in them. The plant shoots up in the spring; its green head is called chháti. There are two kinds, have (green) and lell (red.) The green kind is generally eaten fresh, while the red is ground into a flour which is eaten by Hindús at times of abstinence (bart) from food. They are then allowed to eat fruits (phal-ahár) among which this is reckoned. The produce of the plant is very variable, but a biswa of land covered with water should grow 1 or 11 maunds, giving 20 or 30 maunds to the bigha. The price is also uncertain; at the first incoming of the erop, especially if it is a light one, the fresh nuts will cost 1 or 11 anna a ser; in the full season they may come down to 8 or 6 annas per maund, and when very cheap may be only taka dhari, i.e., 6 pies for 5 sers= 4 annas a maund. Dry nuts are sold at 8 sers per rupce. The Najafgarh jlil used to be noted for its produce of this article, which is considered a light and healthy food; but at present, though it certainly grows there, it is not so largely cultivated as formerly. The sowing is done by Jhínwars (Kahárs), who are allowed to use the village ponds for the purpose by the zamindárs either as return for services to the community, or on payment of rent; say

Chapter I, B. Geology, Fauna, and Flora. Trees.

Special plants.

Chapter I, B. Geology, Fauna, and Flora. Special plants.

Wild animals.

Rs. 2 a bigha, or on condition of letting the families of the proprietors take a portion of the crop from time to time as they need it for food The singhara in some villages is a valuable source of water-income (jalkar) to the community.

'Iháú (panj-pilchi-Tamarix dioica) is found chiefly in Khádar uncultivated land, especially in the belás of the river. It grows sometimes seven or eight feet high, but on the average reaches only to a man's waist and answers to many uses with the zamindar-either as fuel, or made up into baskets or rustic brooms (wherewith to sweep his threshing floor), or lining the sides of a kachá well. The baskets are made by Kahars, who pay 1 anna per day for the right of cutting as much of the bush as they can carry away in their banghy. The actual cash income therefore is not much, except on lands near the city, but the agriculturist looks on it as of considerable use.

(3.) Sarkandá (Saccharum procerum) is a reed that grows to a height of 10 or 12 feet; it is found in alluvial marshes, but also on the side of the canal, and sometimes of its distributaries. It must have moisture, and is fond of mud. Some villages, such as Jákhauli, Tehri, Daulatpur, and Burari, make very considerable sums of money by the sale of this reed. It is used for the roofing of thatched buildings, and for the reed-chair which is so much in fashion among natives. Its price is measured by sheaves, each tied up with a rope made of the leaves, two and a half cubits long. Such a sheaf is called bind and is worth about an anna.

(4.) Pála (Zizyphus nummularia) is a small thorny bush-weed which grows pretty well all over the district, but chiefly in poor lands, and especially on the ridge-like tract of land in Delhi tahsil, near Nangloi Ját, and Bakarwála. In Sunipat it favours Lalheri and Rajlú, and that sandy neighbourhood, while in the hills it grows extensively. In the Ballabgarh Bangar, too, there is a great deal. This uninviting plant gives a very useful food for buffaloes, cows and goats. Camels and goats indeed like it better than any thing almost. It is considered heating, and so is good for the cold weather.

It is cut twice in the year (in Kátík and Chet) with a gandasi,

and is sold at 3, 4, or 5 maunds the rupee.

The following note on the wild animals of the district has

been kindly furnished by Dr. Kavanagh:-

"Pig abound all along the banks of the Jamná, being found in the jháú jungle where there are no crops, and in the latter when they are high enough to afford cover. Foxes and hares are plentiful on the eastern bank of the Jamna, but do not seem to inhabit the western bank to the same extent. Black buck are found almost everywhere. Chikára abound in the range of hills which runs north-east of Delhi, being especially numerous at Bhunsi, Sinah, and the part of the Ridge in this neighbourhood. Wolves are not plentiful, but they are to be usually found in the neighbourhood of the old cantonment, especially during the time soldiers are there encamped, at which time, I have seen them in numbers quite close to my tent. Jackals abound. Hares are found generally throughout the district. Peafowl are plentiful. Duck and snipe are plentiful in ordinary years, but in dry years they are scarce. The nilgai is to be constantly found near the villages of Borari and Khadipur, and in my pigsticking excursions I constantly came across them in these parts. They are also constantly found at Bhunsi due east from the Ridge. Black and grey partridges are plentiful, the former being found principally in the high jungle along the banks of the Jamua, and in the crops when the season is advanced. The mongoose is very common, and so is the hedge hog. I have known the latter commit sad havoc in a garden in the Cantonments. Snakes of every kind are plentiful, the cobra especially so. The old Fort called the Kofla is infested with them, and it has been a common pastime for members of the garrison to go there hunting for them, especially in the rainy season or immediately preceding it. Leopards are found in the outlying villages. I have investi seen them at Tuglakabad. Pára are abundant, especially in the neighbourhood of Borari on the bank of the Jamna, where in my pigsticking excursions I have seen as many as, 40 or 50 in an hour. Maksir, rokú, and batchwa are found in the river Jamná and at Okhlah in the Agra Canal, and the entire river is infested with muggurs the gurryal predominating; but the sub-nosed man-eater is also plentiful. In that part of the river opposite the present rifle range they may be seen any afternoon in hundreds swimming about or basking on the edge of the water. Between the old Fort and Okhlah, they are equally numerous."

Monkeys in some villages bordering on the shady avenues of the Western Jamma Canal are quite a nuisance.† Within the past five years rewards to the amount of Rs. 908 have been given for the destruction of 10 leopards, 367 wolves, and 1,128 smakes. Ducks of various kinds are found in the ponds in the cold weather; snipe in several places in marshes; quail are not uncommon in the fields; partridges, both black and grey, are abundant, and killan are fond of the fields of grain when the grain has not yet hardened.

Chapter I, B.

Geology, Fauua
and Flora.

Wild animals.

^{*} Natives distinguish three kinds of snake: (1) kdla, black, poisonous, and almost) always fatal; (2) pfla (yellow) not fatally poisonous; (3) chitkauria (spotted worse than the pfla, but not so had as the kala. Kale ke age dira na bala—is a well known saying among the samindars. Literally: "In presence of the black (snake) the lamp won't burn." There is an idea that if a kala samp gets into the house, the lamps burn dimly, under the fascination, as it were, of the animal. As a proverb it means there is no doing anything against a powerful person.

† Mr. Maconachic writes: "I once heard it seriously urged as an objection to the

[†] Mr. Maconachic writes: "I once heard it seriously urged as an objection to the alignment of a rajbaha through the lands of the speaker's village, that the canal officers would be sure to plant trees, and trees would be sure to bring monkeys, and monkeys would do all sorts of damage to the crops. The fact is a serious one, especially as the Jat may not kill a monkey even when he catches him in furto manifesto. All that he can do is to station a loud voiced kamin at the point he most wants guarded, hoping that he won't go to sleep. But as a rule the monkeys look in portentously good condition."

CHAPTER II.

HISTORY.

Chapter II.

History.
Early History.

The history of the Delhi district, previous to British rule, is the history of the city of Delhi, which has from the time of its first foundation been the seat of the ruling dynasty, Rájpút, Pathán, Mughal or Mahratta. To write it in full would be to recite the history of Northern India. A brief outline of the principal events which have affected the fortunes of the city itself, with especial reference to the architectural remains which are there to be found, is given in Chapter VI; but no attempt will be made to furnish any more detailed narrative of the historical events which preceded the introduction of British rule.

Administrative arrangements in 1803.

On the 11th September, 1803, the Mahrattas were defeated in the battle on the Hindan by General Lake; and three days afterwards the English entered Delhi as the real masters of the Mughai Empire. The tract then added to the territories of the East Inita Company included a considerable strip of country to the west of the river Jamna, north and south of Delhi. It was determined to assign a large portion of the territory thus acquired to King Shah Alam and his descendants, in order to provide for the maintenance and dignity of the Royal family. The arrangements to be made were thus described in a despatch by Lord Wellesley, dated Fort William, 2nd January 1805:—

"The Governor-General in Council has determined to adopt an arrangement upon the basis of the following provisions :- That a specifical portion of the territories in the vicinity of Delhi, situated on the right bank of the Jamna, should be assigned in part of the provision for the maintenance of the Royal family. That those lands should remain under charge of the Resident of Delhi, and that the revenue should be collected and justice should be administered in the name of His Majesty Shah Alam, under Regulations to be fixed by the British Government. That His Majesty should be permitted to appoint a Divagant other interior officers to attend at the office of the Collector, for the purpose of ascertaining and reporting to His Majesty the amount of the revenues which should be received, and the charges of collection, and of satisfies His Majesty's mind that no part of the produce of the assigned territory was misappropriated. That two Courts of justice should be established for the administration of civil and criminal justice, according to the Mahammadan law, to the inhabitants of the city of Delhi, and of the assigned territory. That no sentences of the Criminal Couris extending to desib should be carried into execution without the express sanction of His Majesty. to whom the proceedings in all trials of this description should be reported, and that sentences of mutilation should be commuted. That to provide for the immediate wants of His Majesty and the Royal household, the following sums should be paid monthly in money from the Treasury of the

Resident of Delhi-to His Majesty for his private expenses, Sieca Rupees 60,000: to the Heir-apparent, exclusive of certain jugica, Sa. Rs. 10,000; to a favourite son of His Majesty, named Jaggat Baksh, Sa. Rs. 5,000; to two other sons of His Majesty, Sa. Rs. 1,500; to Administrative ar-His Majesty's fifty younger sons and daughters, Sa. Rs. 10,000; to rangements in 1803. Shah Nawar Khan, His Majesty's Treasurer, Rs. 2,500; to Sayud Raza Khan, British Agent at His Majesty's Court, and related to His Majesty by marriage, Sa. Rs. 1,000; total per mensem, Sieca Rupees 90,000. That if the produce of the revenue of the assigned territory should bereafter admit of it, the monthly sum to be advanced to His Majesty for his private expenses might be increased to one lakh of rupees. That in addition to the sums specified, the sum of Sa. rupees 10,000 should annually be paid to His Majesty on certain festivals agreeably to ancient neage."

Chapter II. History.

According to this arrangement, the assigned tract, afterwards known as the Delhi Territory, was excluded, by Regulation VIII of 1805, from the operation of the General Regulations, and, subject to the restrictions alluded to in the despatch already quoted, placed under the charge of an officer styled the Resident and Chief Commissioner of Delhi. The King retained exclusive civil and criminal jurisdiction within the Palace, consulting the Resident in important cases, while throughout the assigned territory justice was administered according to Muhammadan law by British officers, but in the name of the King, and sentences of death were referred to the King for approval. The fiscal arrangements were under the entire control of the Resident and his subordinates. This assigned territory included, with certain exceptions, the whole of the present divisions of Delhi and Hissar. The chief exceptions were Sirsa and part of Hissar, held by the Bhattis,* and parts of Kurnál, which were in the hands of independent Sikh Chiefs. There were also other exceptions in the estates of certain noblemen, who were found by the British in possession of considerable tracts, which they held, on tonures more or less permanent, from the Delhi Kings or the Mahrattas. Such were the estates of the Raja of Ballabgarh in this district, of Jhajjur in Rohtak, and of the Begam Samru in Gurgáon. These alienations were for the time recognized by the British Government. It will be noted elsewhere in what manner the greater part of them successively, by lapse or otherwise, came under direct British In addition to the payments for the maintenance of the Royal family already detailed, which were made from the British Treasury, the Crown lands and other property denominated taiyil (see Chapter V, Section B), possessed by the King and several members of the Royal family, were in no way interfered with. The income from this source amounted to about 11 lakh of rupees per annum.

In 1809, financial difficulties being removed by the cessation of war, the British Government increased the allowance of the Royal family to one lakh of rupees per month, this being payable without reference to the income the Delhi territory. This state of things continued until 1832,

^{*} See Gazetteer of Hissar district.

Chapter II.
History.

Administrative arrangements in 1803.

when by Regulation V of that year, the office of Resident and Chief Commissioner was abolished. The affairs of the Delhi territory were to be administered in future by a Commissioner in correspondence with the Government of the North-West Provinces, the powers heretofore exercised by the Resident as Chief Commissioner being vested in the Board of Revenue and the High (Sadr) Court at Agra. By the same Act it was laid down that the Commissioner of Delhi territory and his subordinates should in their administration conform to the principles and spirit of the Regulations. This enactment put an end to the anomalous system of administration above described; and henceforth, in name as well as in actual fact, the administration passed into the hands of the East India Company. The Delhi territory continued to form a part of the territory under the Government of the N. W. Provinces till 1858, when after the reconquest of Delhi from the Sepoy mutineers, it was annexed to the newly formed Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab.

Successive Residents.

The first Resident of the Delhi territory was Sir David Ochterlony,* who was in charge from 1803—1806. He had not been a year in office before the city was besieged by Holkar, whose large and well-appointed army was, as is well-known, successfully beaten off by a handful of Europeans and natives under the gallant leadership of their soldier-governor, until Lord Lake returned. General Ochterlony's bravery, however, was more acceptable to Government than his civil administration, and in 1806 he was removed to Ludhiánah, then a frontier station. His successor, Mr. R. G. Seton from Bareilly, was a man of high character and amiable temperament, but wanting in self-confidence, and in practical energy of decision. He leaned much on a stronger man than himself, Charles Metcalfe, who on Seton's departure for Europe in 1810 was appointed to the important post of Delhi Resident. For nine years he remained in it, developing that administrative experience and vigorous practical wisdom which afterwards placed him so high on the roll of Indian names. As a mere boy he had in 1809 confronted and successfully treated with the great Ruler of the Sikhs, and the early charge of the Delhi Residency was the immediate reward of his brilliantly self-reliant management of the treaty of the Satlaj—"one of the best kept treaties of Indian History." In December 1818 he entered the troubled period of his life by transfer to Haidarábád as Resident, and Ochterlony returned for two years with Henry Middleton as Collector. In 1821 Ochterlony went to Rájputáná, and, after an acting charge by Middleton, Alexander Ross was appointed in 1822 to the administration as Agent to the Governor-General. In 1823 William Fraser acted as Agent, and then Charles Elliot succeeded for a few months when he went as Agent to Farukhábád, and Charles Metcalfe came back again as Resident with control of Rajputána,

His name by a characteristic metathesis is known among the natives as Loni akhtar.

and the conduct of foreign relations with Kahul and Lahore. this capacity he was present at the memorable siege and capture of Bhartpur. In 1828 he was appointed member of the Governor Successive Residents. General's Conneil, and was succeeded by Sir E. Calebrooko. The scandal that occurred in this gentleman's time is well-known, and also the unpopular but conrageous part taken in the matter by Charles Trevelyan, then acting as his Secretary. The way in which the affair is described in a native account, perhaps by an intentional enphemism, is that "in his time, Ram Gopal, and others of his dependants, made bribes run high" (rishwatsitani ka bazar yarm kind). The result was that the Resident was removed. William Fraser was appointed to act, but was also removed for openly showing sympathy with the accused. Mr. Hawkins succeeded, but as he was not acceptable to the king. Mr. Martin was appointed, and remained there till 1832, when the Residentship was abolished, and an Agency again constituted. Rajputana was mado a separate charge, leaving Delhi and the protected territory and the foreign relations still with the local administration. Fraser, however, was murdered in 1835 at the instigation, as it was proved, of the Nawih of Pirozpur,* who met with condign punishment. Then came the long administration of Thomas Metcalfe, reaching for 18 years up to 1853. During his time, in accordance with the march of political events, and the advance of our border toward the north, the protected States were put under George Clerk, afterwards Sir G. Clerk, at Ludhianah. Hansi, Hissar and Sirsa still remained connected with Delhi. In November 1853, Thomas T. Metcalfe died, and next month Simon Fraser became Agent and Commissioner. The tragic end of this officer, killed on the fatal 11th of May 1857, is well known. In September 1857, when Delhi was taken, Mr. C. B. Saunders was appointed Commissioner, while Hissar, Hansi and Sirsa were made into the separate Commissionership of Hissar under the charge of Mr. E. Brandreth, with political charge of the petty States of Dujánah Pataudi remained under the Delhi Commisand Loharú. sioner.

The Delhi territory was first divided regularly into districts in 1819. The district of Delhi, as then constituted, consisted of two parganas, the "northern" and the "southern." Between them they comprised the present Delhi talisil, the northern portion of the present Ballabgarh taksil, and a small portion now included in the Rohtak district. The greater part of the Ballabgarh tahsil was then independent.† The present Sunipat talisil, with its head-quarters at Larsauli, formed the Larsauli pargana of the Panipat district 1.

Chapter II. History.

Constitution of the district.

^{*} For a detailed account of this, see Col. Siceman's "Rambles of an Indian Official", Vol. 2, pp. 209—231.
† Ballabgarh was confiscated after the Mutiny. See Chapter VI, 7
‡ See Gazetteer of the Karnál district.

Chapter II.

History.

Constitution of the district,

It was only transferred to Delhi in 1861. The present arrangement of the tahsils dates from 1862. At some time between 1848 and 1853, a considerable tract to the east of the Jamná, including (by the Census of 1853) 160 villages and an area of 193 square miles, was added to the Delhi district from the districts of Mirath and Bulandshahr. This, under the name of the "Eastern pargana," continued to form part of the Delhi district until the Mutiny and the transfer of the Delhi territory to the Punjab. The immediate charge of what is now the Delhi district was held first by a Principal Assistant, and subsequently by a Collector under the Resident and Civil Commissioner. The first distribution of the Delhi territory was into divisions, an Assistant being entrusted with the charge of a division. At this time Sunipat formed part of the Northern Division with head-quarters at Pánipat, while Delhi and part of Ballabgarh formed the central division. Gurgáon and Rohtak and the parts round these made up the southern and western divisions. In 1820 the Civil Commissionership was abolished or changed for a Deputy Superintendent on Rs. 3,000 a month, whose duties were primarily revenue; and about the same time Delhi was put under the Board of Revenue, North-West Provinces.

Tahsii arrangements.

The arrangements as to tahsils appear to have been as follows:-As regards Sunipat there were at first two talistis, both having their head-quarters at the town; then another, a small one, with a very poorly paid tahsildar, was made up at Ganaur. This was the state of things in 1835, when (1) Sunipat Bángar had a tahsildár drawing Rs. 50 a month and the revenue was Rs. 2,13,040; (2) Sunipat Khádar, a tahsíldár on Rs. 50 and revenue Rs. 70,999; (3) Ganaur, a tahsildár on Rs. 30 and revenue Rs. 67,444. It is not clear whether this revenue includes jágír or not. In 1836 the Ganaur talisíl was incorporated with the Sunipat Khádar, and the talisíldár's pay was revised as follows:, talisíldár Bangar, Rs. 175; talisíldár Khádar, Rs. 125. This administration continued till 1851, when the two Pánípat tahsíls were made one, and the same amalgamation took place in Sunipat, the one tahsil being called Larsauli. Larsauli then remained, with its 205 villages, in Karnál district till 1857, when it was transferred to Delhi. For Delhi the head-quarters were at first in the city, then at Najafgarh; then there were two talisils, one at Mahrauli and one at Bawanah. The Bawanah talisil was moved to Alipur, and after the Mutiny to Delhi. Mahrauli was given up and its villages divided between Delhi and Ballabgarh. This last, in addition to the villages thus gained, included the raj villages, and those of parganah Pálí-Pákal.

In May 1868, twenty villages, with a population of 6,990, were transferred from Gurgáon to the Ballabgarh talisíl. In August 1868 six villages, with a population of 5,841, were transferred from Rohtak to Sunipat. At the commencement of Settlement operations in 1872, the distribution of villages among the three tulisíls was as

239

follows: Ballahgarh, 282; Delhi, 305; 8	Sunlpat,	211. T	otal, 7	'98 vil-	Chapter II.
lages. During Settlement the following	g change	es were n	nade :		History.
				Villages,	Takillarrangements,
1Ballabgarh* received by alluvion from Bulan-	delialir	•••	***	7	The state of the s
† gave to Delhi	•••	***		G	
leaving finally	***	***	•••	253	
2.—Delhi 1 received as above mentioned 5. by alluxion from Meerut 6 increased by separation of estates	•••	***	•••	6	
5 by alluxion from Meerul	***	***	***	33	
f increased by separation of estatus	•••	400		3	
T gave to Sunipat	***	•••	.4*	27	
T gave to Sunipat If y Meerul by diluvion	•••	••	•••	I	
Leaving finally	•••	•••		288	
3.—Sunipat 5 received as above mentioned increased by separation of estates	•••	***	•••	27	
increased by separation of relater	***	4 + +	***	1	

The transfers between the talistis were effected under the anthority of Government Panjab's letter No. 1608 of 17th November 1875. In 1880 a change in the course of the Jamua transferred a small village to Bulandshahr.

Leaving finally

The events of the Mutiny, so far as they are connected State of Delbi diswith the city of Delhi, will be found in Chapter VI. The following sketch refers rather to the district as a whole. As early as 1855, two years before the outbreak, a seditious pamphlet was published in Delhi, called Risala Jehad, directly preaching a religious war against the infidels who held the country. It was supposed to have heen written about 1828 by one Maulavi Muhamad Ismail, a Wahabi, and about 1850 was translated into Hindi. Seditions placards, later on, were posted in various places of the city. When the actual rising took place at Delhi on the 11th May, the king sent a letter to the Commissioner of the Agra Division, G. F. Harvey, Esquire, who had been Commissioner for a short time in Delhi some years before, telling of the outbreak and protesting his helplessness. In the city, however, everything was done in his name, and orders were issued to the zandindárs of the district for the collection of revenue. The papers in the printed volume of the trial of the king give a lively idea of the burlesque of order and Government that went on in the imperial city of the Mughals between May and September 1857. The king was nominally at the head of affairs; he was treated with reverence in the Oriental fashion, and amused himself with recording his signature, and occasionally short autograph

trict during the Mutiny.

^{*} Chak Makanpur-Chak Parasrampur-Chak Latsipur-Bela Kalan-Chak Jaganpur-Chak Motipur-Chak Basantpur.

[†] Bijwásau—Salchpur—Samálkah—Kápasherah—Rájókhrí—Málikpur kohi. ‡ Sec above.

Arázi Sábapur—Arázi Badarpur—Arázi Pachábera. Timarpur separated from Wazirábád and Ghoga from Bankner.

Bakipur—Basautpur—Bherah—Dahisarah—Jauti—Sersah—Kundli—Nathipur—Bazidpur Sabaoli—Shaliabad—Kheri Manajat—Shahiiabad Pana Papossian—Munirpur-Dheki-Nahrah-Nahri-Mandaurah-Turkpur - Mandauri-Hillalpur-Jhanjhaol-Jataulah-Katlupur-Saidpur-Firozpur-Rampur-Nizampur Khurd-Kun-

^{††} Jatwain Khurd. 11 Jántí split up into Jántí kalán and Janti khurd.

Chapter II.

History.
State of Delhi district during the
Mutiny.

orders, on the numerous petitions presented, but the real power was in the hands of the soldiers. Complaints, are not long wanting of their violence and unruliness; the bania is indignant at the summary appropriation of his goods going on, and compares the present administration unfavourably with that of the Káfirs, who, however wretched they were in religion, respected the rights of pro-The zamindárs of some village outside, having attacked and been beaten off by their neighbours with whom they have had a long standing grudge, write in fulsome terms congratulating the king on the massacre of the hateful English, portesting their fervent loyalty, and praying for punishment on their temporarily successful rivals. The king writes. "Let the Mirza see to this," and a foraging party soon after visits both villages, to the gain probably of neither. Grain carts coming into the city are not unfrequently seized by regiments on their own account, and when enquiry is made they protest they must do something of the kind as they do not get their pay. This last fact is one which, as time goes on, assumes an uncomfortable prominence, and makes it necessary for the imperial dignity to stoop to such unpopular exactions as a com-This, it need hardly be said, is followed by more compulsory loan. plaints from the bania, who in return gets threatened with bodily penalties; and so matters go on; the mutineers are scarcely loyal to the 'emperor'; they quarrel among themselves for the best quarters, get little or no regular pay, but recoup themselves by plundering any person who seems weak enough to invite it and wealthy enough to be worth it. As regards matters outside, the Rájá of Ballabgarh trims to secure himself on both sides, but is hoplessly convicted of collusion with the king by letters under his own seal protesting his respectful loyalty to the Muhammadan, and his joy at the defeat of the English—so much so that a man he had in his own service belonging to the detested race he will not retain any longer near him.' The Nawab of Jhajjar is as bad or worse, and the zamindars throughout the district fall into lawless habits of attacking their neighbours and plundering travellers.

Noble exceptions to the general disloyalty.

Yet there are bright exceptions of men who, moved by loyalty to our government, or pity for individuals, did good service in the way of protecting and concealing fugitive Europeans and helping them on their way to safe places. A list of rewards given for such work will be found in the Settlement Report; but a few are worthy of special mention. The most illustrious instance of hardly-tried loyalty in the district perhaps was that of Hidáyat Ali, a risáldar in the native army, on leave at the time of the outbreak. This gallant fellow* took in, fed, quartered, and for more than a week pro-

^{*} The account locally given of the first appearance of the Collector of Gurgáon, and other persons of consequence, as fugitives is very graphic, and has no doubt had some picturesqueness added to it during the lapse of the twenty years since the occurrence of the facts on which it is founded. It begins somewhat in this fashion:—

[&]quot;It was just about noon and the Risáldár Sáhib was taking a nap, when one of his men came and woke him saying—"there is a gera standing at some distance from the village under a tree, his head bare, and his clothes dirty, and he has a stick in his hand, and he makes signs." The Risáldár Sábib got up at once and went out and found that this was a scout sent out by the fugitive party to see if they might come into the village, &c., &c.

tected a band of European fugitives some thirty in number, among whom was Mr. Ford, the Collector of Gurgion. To do this within forty miles of the centre of rebellion and within reach of two days Soble exceptions to easy march of the mutineers' cavalry at Delhi, showed an unswerving loyalty which was conspicuously noted at the time, and generously rewarded after the re-establishment of order. Government presented the risdldar with a dress of honour, and a splendidly engraved and jewelled sword valued at Rs. 1,000, and also gave him the perpetual jogir of his village, Mohinah, which is assessed at Rs. 5,450.

Another instance of conrageous humanity, which was no doubt founded on, and intensified by, a personal liking for the officer concerned, was the help given by the zamindars of Isapur, or Ishakpar, in the Delhi Dabar, to the wife and children of Mr. Nunn, Assistant Patrol in the Customs Department. For three months the zamindars of the village hid them in their houses and fed them on their own food; and this not withstanding the known mutinous disposition of the Nawah of Jhajjar, in whose territory Isapur then was. The reward here was ten biswas (or half) of the village Bakargarh adjoining, whose camindars had set fire to a Government bungalow, and were punished accordingly. Besides this Rs. 200 indm was granted out of the jama of Bakargarh, and a pension of Rs. 100 each given to the four lambardars. One of them has now been made a saildur (Khushálí or Khushí Ràm.)

Other cases of services more or less meritorious were, those of Bhure Khan of Kalali Bagh, who helped and sheltered Sir John Metcalfe in his flight to Jaipur; the camindárs of Rohat who sheltered and helped on their way to Karnal a company of English fugitives; and the Kuilanah men higher up who did the same good office. In a garden at Knilanah is the grave of a little child of Captain Fraser, Bengal Engineers, who died during that terrible flight in the May heat. On the eastern side there are sadly interesting traces of another party who must have escaped one by one from the flagstaff-tower on the 11th. The first place marked is Pallah, in the Delhi tahsil, some 15 miles north-east of the city, where Mrs. Peile, travelling by herself alone, and apparently on foot, got shelter, protection and assistance on her way north. Perhaps here, or a little further away, sho met her wounded husband. Lieutenant F. Peile of the 38th Light Infantry, and together with Dr. and Mrs. Wood, and Major Patterson, they got help from Hardial, a lambardár of Murshidpur, taking them on to Larsauli whence they succeeded in escaping to Karnál. The lambardár has a certificate from Captain Peile, dated Delhi, January 1867.

Yet on the whole, of course the dark side predominated. General disaffection The district generally appears to have been mutinous, and certainly and its punishment. got sharply punished. The Gujar chaukidders of Chandrawal

History. the general disloyalty.

Chapter II.

This is not quite in accordance with fact, for the Europeans were not badly provided with arms, and were not so destitute as is here said. They had tried the Chlansa ferry in vain, as they were menaced by mutineers on the other side, and the Rajput villagers on this side were also disaffected and obstructive. They were recommended to come back to Mohinah by Narayan Singh, a trooper of the 12th Irregular Cavalry,

Chapter II.

History.

General disaffection and its punishment.

burnt the civil station, and the hill Gujars broke out thieving, plundering, and, wherever they could, burning Government property. For a time disorder was rampant. But it was very short-lived; all the north part of the district was overawed by the presence of the camp on 'the Ridge,' and supplies were obtained through friendly zamindars without much difficulty. Nothing is more surprising in a small way, among the big events of that time, than the ease and rapidity with which things were settled again after the fall of Delhi. The revenue due in June 1857 was partially collected, and that due in December in full. This re-establishment of order, it may be imagined, was not effected without sharp measures. The special commission appointed for the summary punishment of offenders convicted 2,025 persons, acquitting 1,281. Of the convicts, 392 were hanged, 57 were sentenced to life imprisonment. and many more to imprisonment for shorter terms. Nor can these figures be thought to show all the punishment inflicted. The official report itself says: "It is difficult to analyse all that may have been done during that period of excitement." And there is no doubt that, though hardly anything could be too severe a retribution for the diabolical acts of cruelty that we read of, or hear of, as having been perpetrated by the mutineers and their sympathisers, the Delhi district received a lesson which will never be forgotten.* As was officially said "the agrestic population had been taught to know their masters," while the city retained only one-fourth of its former population. The king himself was tried by a special commission in his own Hall of Audience, and was convicted of rebellion against the British Government, and of being accessory to "the slaughter of 49 Christians, chiefly women and children, within his palace-walls." In January 1858 a general disarming of the people took place; penal fines were levied from offending villages; and the political punishment was pronounced of transfer to the Panjab. By Act XXXVIII of 1858 the imperial city was annexed as a provincial town to the frontier province, and the firm hands of the Chief Commissioner assumed charge of the Delhi territory, which he had done so much to reconquer from the mutineers. The civil Courts re-opened in July 1858.

Famin≊.

A note of past years of scarcity may conveniently be made here. These, as known by tradition, or reported by different authorities, are the years A.D. 1345, 1631, 1661, 1739, 1770, 1783-S4, 1803-4, 1813-14, 1819, 1825-26, 1827-28, 1832-34, 1837-38, 1860-61, 1865, 1868, and 1877. Of these the worst are said to havebeen 1783-84, 1803-4, 1837-38, and 1860-61. Perhaps this is said because there

^{*} It is not a common thing perhaps to meet a man shot for mutiny in 1857. Yet there is, or till very lately was, one in the village of Khor Panjáb, in the Delhi Bángar. The villagers had sent a khidmatgár of Sir J. Metcalfe's, who came to them for concealment, into Delhi to be given up to the king. This was base no doubt, and so thought the English authorities. There is a spot pointed out where 20 or 21 of the zamindárs were stood up in a line and shot down one after another. Our friend was shot in his turn and tumbled down, no doubt thinking himself dead. Yet after the departure of the executioners he found he was only badly wounded, and managed to recover and live these many years.

is a more commonly known tradition of these years than of others especially of the terrible chatisa 1783-84 (Sambat 184.0) But the earlier famines are well-known in histories. Muhammad Tughlak's savage extravagance in his war schemes brought on, it is said, the famine of 1345, wherein men ate each other. Shah Julian saw two years of drought, 1629-30, and this induced the scarcity of the following year. Aurangzeb's reign had the famine of 1661 in which, in spite of the personal exertions of the Emperor, multitudes perished, and at least as many at Delhi as in other places (chirag ke niche andhera.) In 1825-26, it is said, there was great drought in Delhi? out of a revenue demand of Rs. 28,72,272, the balances were Rs. 10,59,212. In the northern division of the territory a whole year's revenue was remitted, and in the western division Suffering again occurred in there was considerable distress. 1832-33, while in 1837-38 bread-riots came into fashion, and unlimited relief was ordered for those who would work. In Panipat alone Rs. 26,000 revenue was remitted, and elsewhere no doubt in proportion. This trouble was put on end to by rain in February 1838. The events of the post-mutiny famines are fresh and well known; in 1860-61 a system of large earth works was started for the employment of sufferers, chiefly in the Rallabgarh tabsil. Some of these works have fallen out of repair, while others have been rendered useless by the construction of the Agra Canal.

Some conception of the development of the district since it Development since came into our hands may be gathered from Table No. 11, which gives some of the leading statistics for tive-yearly periods, so far as they are available; while most of the other tables appended to this work give comparative figures for the last few years. In the case of Table No. II, it is probable that the figures are not always strictly comparable, their basis not being the same in all cases from one period to another. But the figures may be accepted as showing in general

terms the nature and extent of the advance made.

The following table shows the several officers who have suc-District officers since cessively held charge of the district since annexation:—

Chapter II. History. Famines.

nunexation.

annexation.

Name.	From		To	
Mr. W. Clifford Fir Theophilus Metealfe Mr. P. Il Lecton Mr. W. C. Plowden Mr. W. C. Plowden Mr. F. Il Cooper Ident, F. C. Rewsher Mejor Stuart Graham Mr. F. H. Cooper Mr. T. H. Thornton Mr. F. Il Leoper Mr. T. Il Thornton Mr. T. Il Thornton Mr. W. H. Rattigan Mr. W. H. Rattigan Mr. W. H. Rattigan Captain C. A. MacMahon Lieut. A. Harcourt Captain C. A. MacMahon Mr. T. W. Smyth Captain C. A. MacMahon Mr. T. W. Smyth Captain C. A. MacMahon Mr. A. W. Stogdon Major C. A. MacMahon Mr. A. W. Stogdon Major C. A. MacMahon	1st Ociober 23rd November 21st March 1st March 1st May 27th Ociober 18th November 17th February 12th May 27th Ociober 14th December 25th May 27th Juno	1657 1637 1650 1660 1661 1663 1663 1663 1664 1861 1861 1865 1865 1865 1866 1867 1867	20th September 22nd November 22nd November 20th April 26th October 16th September 17th May 2nd October 13th Becomber 27th May 28th September 2nd October 2nd September 2nd October 1st September 1st October 2nd February 4th November 5th October 12nd February 4th November 5th September 18th September 18th September 18th September 18th September 18th October 18th Juno	19.57 1857 1860 1861 1861 1862 1863 1863 1863 1864 1864 1865 1865 1866 1867 1867 1867 1869 1870

1882

1882

1893

1893

1883

1883

1883

Still in charge.

Name.

From

1882

1882

1883

1883

1883

1883

1883

1883

...

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Chapter II.

District officers since annexation.

History. Mr. G. Kuox
Mr. A. H. Beuton
Major R. T. M. Lang
Mr. G. Knox
Major C. A. MacMahon]
Mr. W. M. Young
Lt. Colonel R. Young
Major Jas. Tighe
Mr. J. Frizelle
Mr. J. Frizelle
Mr. T. W. Smyth
Mr. D. G. Barkley
Mr. G. G. Bryth
Mr. G. Smyth
Mr. G. Smyth 2nd June 1871 29th February 26th March 27th May 10th December 22nd February 1st March 27th March 1873 1872 1872 1872 ... 28th May 11th December 1873 1873 ••• 1873 1873 23rd February 12th March 16th June 11th March 1873 1873 15th June 15th January 15th November 5th May 1873 1873 1874 1873 16th January 14th November 1874 1874 1874 1875 6th May 1875 13th May 1876 14th May 20th August 19th August 30th September 31st August 30th September 1875 1876 400 *** 1875 1675 44. 1st October 1875 1876 ••• ... 1st Reptember 1876 1876 ... 1st October 14th August 14th October 1876 1877 1st October 15th August 15th October 16th April 23rd April 14th August 12th November 1877 1877 15th April 22nd April 18th August 1877 1878 1878 1878 1878 1878 ••• Lt Colouel F. M. Birch
Mr. G. Smyth
Mr. J. R. Maconschie
Mr. G. Smyth
Mr. T. W. Smyth
Mr. T. W. Smyth
Mr. J. R. Drummond
Mr. T. W. Smyth
Mr. A. W. Stogdon
Mr. T. Troward
Mr. T. W. Smyth
Mr. G. Smyth
Mr. G. Smyth
Mr. J. W. Stogdon
Mr. T. Troward
Mr. T. W. Smyth
Mr. G. Smyth
Mr. G. Smyth
Mr. G. Smyth
Mr. J. W. Gardiner
Mr. G. Smyth
Mr. G. Smyth 11th November 1878 1878 ••• 1878 1st September 29th September 14th November 1879 2nd September 1879 1879 ... ** 30th September 15th November 1st February 1880 1879 Sist January 1883 1880 31st January 23rd March 18th April 20th April 17th July 6th October 17th December 6th April 9th Ootober 17th October 17th November 8till in charre. 1882 1833 24th Blarch 19th April 21st April 18th July 1892 1883 ... *** 1882 1882 •••

7th October

18th December 7th April 10th October 18th October 10th November

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CHAPTER III.

THE PEOPLE.

SECTION A.—STATISTICAL.

Table No. V gives separate statistics for each tabstl and for the whole district, of the distribution of population over towns and villages, over area, and among houses and families, while the number of houses in each town is shown in Table No. XLIII. The statistics for the district as a whole give the following figures. Further information will be found in Chapter II of the Census Report of 1881:—

Chapter III, A.
Statistical.
Distribution of population.

•		- (Persons	•••	68.34
Percentage of total population	on who live in villages		Males	•••;	68.43
		1	Females	••	68.23
'Average rural population per	r village	•••	•••	•••	632
Average total population per	r village and town	•••	•••	•••	918
Number of villages per 100	square miles			•••	55
Average distance from village	e to village, in miles	•••	•••	•••	1.45
	Total area	j	Total population	••• ,	504
	Total area	•••	Rural population	•••	345
Density of population per	Cultivated area	1	Total population	•••	784
square mile of	Curivated area	••• }	Tratat bobuittion	•••	536
1	Culturable area		Total population	•••	615
	Curdianc area	•••	TOMERNOOD INTERVAL	***	420
Number of resident families	ner complet house		Villages 7	••	1.88
Muniper or resident runnines	her occubied nouse	•••	IOWES		2.03
Number of persons per occu	nied house	1	Villages	•••	8 55
number of persons per occu	pied nouse	•••	Towns	•••	9.29
Number of persons per resid	ent family	. 5	Villages	• • • •	4.24
Timesor or beream her resta	,	S	Towns	•••	4.57
				_	

Among the 701 villages, the size varies greatly, from the huge estates* in Sunipat yielding several thousands of rupees revenue, to the petty hamlets near the city and in the north of Ballabgarh, paying only Rs. 50 or 60 yearly into the Treasury. The population varies accordingly: the average village will have an extent of about 991 acres, a population of 632, and pay something over a thousand rupees revenue. This fact stamps the district as much more akin in these points to the thickly inhabited and heavily assessed parts of the North-West Provinces than to the less fully developed tracts of the Punjab, where the incidence of the revenue is considerably lighter, and the square mile numbers far fewer inhabitants. A glance at the map will show that small towns are so distributed as to form almost everywhere a market not far distant in any case from any, even the

^{*} The estate of Bhatgaon, which has been now assessed at Rs. 6,000 (dry jama) used to pay at one time Rs. 15,000, including that part of the revenue which is called owner's rate.

Statistical. Distribution of population.

Chapter III, A. most retired hamlet; and where there seems a comparative want of such a market, it will generally be found that the average size of the villages themselves is very comfortable. In the point of distribution of numbers then the district is fairly well-off, though, as might be expected, the thickest swarm of human beings is found in the carefully cultivated plains of the Khadar riverain, or in the still productive lands of the canal villages. The population of the hills is naturally sparse.

Migration and birth-

Table No. VI shows the principal districts and states with place of population, which the district has exchanged population, the number of emigrants in each direction, and the distribution of immigrants by tahsils. Further details will be found in Table XI, and in supplementary Tables C to H of the Census Report for 1881, while the whole subject is discussed at length in Part II of Chapter

Proportion p popu	er mille o lation.	f total
Persons Males Females	Gain, 232 177 293	Toss. 171 127 222

III of the same Report. The total gain and loss to the district by migration is shown in the margin. The total number of residents born out of the district is 149,666, of whom 61,037 are males and 88,629 females. The number of people born in the district and living in other parts of the Panjab is 109,992, of whom

43,643 are males and 66,349 females. The figures below show the general distribution of the population by birthplace:-

		P	BOPORT	tor pe	R WILL	BOF R	BSIDEN	T POPI	LATIO:	5.
BOSH IN		Rusa	L Portl	LTION	Urba	r Porte	LTION, '	Toza	L Porte	LIION.
		Males.	Females	Persons	Males.	Females	Persons	Males.	Pemales	Persons.
The District The Province India Asia	**** *** *** ***	876 946 1,000 1,000	691 691 1,000 1,000	789 920 1,000 1,000	713 895 997 993	734 820 953 929	723 813 929 929	824 972 993 999	7/5 853 1,070 1,000	762 855 893 893

The following remarks on the migration to and from Dehli are taken from the Census Report:-

"The amount of immigration is exceedingly large in proportion to the population. The attractions exercised by a great centre of commerce swells its amount, but the low percentage of males, and the fact that the proportion of people born in the district, and even in the Panjab, is smaller among females than among males, show how largely the migration, at any rate between Delhi and the districts and provinces which border on it, is reciprocal. The percentage of males is highest in Hissar, Ambalah, Lahore and the Native States, none of which march with Delhi. It is also high among the immigrants from Rájpútana, which would seem to show that some of them had been driven to the river banks by scarcity of water and grass, or were perhaps engaged on the works of the new canal. Males are more numerous among immigrants than among emigrants, the immigration to a large urban centre always showing an excess of males. The excess emigration to Lahore and Ambalah is probably due to the attractions exercised by the provincial capital and the cantonments. Among the districts with which

exchange has been considerable, the emigration has been largest in proportion to immigration in these where density of population is smallest. the fertility of the riverain and canal-watered tracts of Delhi has caused immigration from largely to exceed emigration into the neighbouring districts, except in the case of Karnal which offers identical attractions; though the extensive emigration into Rohtak is probably due, in part at least, to the ravages of saline efflorescence in many of the canal villages. The immigrants from the N. W. P. include some two or three thousand labourers working upon the new canal."

Chapter III, A.

Statistical.

Migration and birth-

.The figures in the statement below show the population of Increase and decrease in the statement below show the population of Increase and decrease in the statement below show the population of Increase and decrease in the statement below show the population of Increase and decrease in the statement below show the population of Increase and decrease in the statement below show the population of Increase and decrease in the statement below show the population of Increase and decrease in the statement below show the population of Increase and decrease in the statement below show the population of Increase and decrease in the statement below show the population of Increase and decrease in the statement below show the population of Increase and decrease in the statement below shown the population of Increase and Inc the district, as it stood at the enumerations of 1868 and 1881:-

crease of population.

	(Census.		Persons.	Males.	Females	Density per square mile.
Actuals	1863 1869 1831	•••	***	021,585 643,516	333,192 341,016	289,373 209,400	487 496 501
Percentages {	1869 on 1881 on		•••	 103·63	103-25	103.86	102

Unfortunately, the boundaries of the district have changed so much since the Census of 1853, that it is impossible to compare the figures; but the density of population as then ascertained

Year.		Persons.	Males.	Females
1891		643,5	341,0	299,5
1882	•••	645.3	344.9	300.4
1883	***	617.0	345.7	301,3
1884	•••	648.7	346.6	302,1
1895		650.4	347.4	803,0
1886	. 111	652.2	349,3	393.9
1887		653,9	349,1	304.8
1888	***	655.7	350.0	305,7
1889	***	657,4	350,9	306.6
1890		659,2	351,7	307,5
1891	400	660.9	352,6	309.4

probably did not differ much over the two areas. It will be seen that the annual increase population per 10,000 since 1868 has been 25 for males, 26 for females, and 27 for persons, at which rate the male population would be doubled in 281.9 years, the female in 238.0 years, and the total population in 259.7 years. Supposing the same rate of increase

to hold good for the next ten years, the population for each year would be in hundreds as shown in the margin.

Nor is it improbable that the rate of increase will be susing Part of the increase is probably due to increased accuracy of enumeration at each successive enumeration, a good test of mile is afforded by the percentage of males to persons, which was 5400 in 1853, 53.60 in 1868 and 53.46 in 1881. Part again is creeke gain by migration, as already shown at page 34. En the race of increase is moderate; it has been reduced by murraling of the canal, which it is hoped that the realignment new representation nish; and the population will probably streams to increase Toincrease in urban population since 1868 has been for larger than that in rural population, the numbers living I ISE fine group 100 living in 1868 being 110 for urban, and 194 for total papulation. This is due to the great expansion of Deni sea commercial commercial commercial by the extension of railway commencione. The populations of

Chapter III, A.

Statistical Increase and decrease of population. individual towns at the respective enumerations are shown under

2K			1756 C	_
90	17	~ test)*	CLA THE	
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TOTETAL II		I	of workings	_
their so	200	3/4/107	0, 1, 1931	. 0
individual town their several h	Total Pop	المسسسان	on that of	١ -
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Tahan.	1553-	1000	1mg	1
Tallian.	1 75000	سيسب ا	100	٠١.
1	1	317,572	97 10	. 1
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1				-1
1-33-619	143,005	133,5,5		<u>ا</u> ک
Sunfrat	130,025	1		
Sunitaria		P.43,51	3	31
Ballabgarh	- 631.6°	1 1	the mublish	257
1	- 1 Vary	-ith	The A	2015
*Total district		COTES CCO	for the	the
10.00	621,5%	et 01	PPELETETE	nie.

*These figures do not agree with the published figures of the Census Report of 1853 for the whole district. They are taken from the registers in the District Office, and are the best figures now available.

Within the district the increase of population since 1868 for the various taheile is shown in the margin.

Mr. Maconachie in his Settlement Report gives the following interesting figures for the separate tracts included in the district.

Total division of not series in the III the	
Total dividual and the second of 1853 for the	
interior they are taken in the same the best figures of the continuity of they are taken in the same they are the best figures in the same they are the best figures in the same they are the they are the they are they are they are the they are they are they are they are the	
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25 40,655 61,700 53,563 33,000 13,535	l
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1,12,271 71,552 72,615 57,223 24,161 23,22 13,52 11.51	١
	١
1.29,511 1.765	١
1854 1855 1845 1845 1845 1845 1845 1845 1845 1845 1846 18	1
1854 1854 1842 1842 1842 1854 1855 18	
1554 Per cent. increase on 500 (1575) 1,07,165 (0,752) 22-01 29-42 20-42 2	
1 3020 1 20120	
1300 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000	Ċ
Per cent. increase on the formulation of 1854 ence to 1854 ence total per cent. increase on total per cent. increase on 1852 ence total per cent. increase on 1852 ence total per cent. increase on 1852 ence total per cent. Increase of population of 1851 ence total per cent. for 1881 the Deput.	-
rotal Per of 1542 since of 154	•
Total per cent of 1652 E to 1881 the Deputy and decrease of Per	
1942 Report for loose and the increase and the per cer	4
Population Report for 1881 and detroit for 1881 the increase and detroit for consus. Report the increase	ب. بيد

Increase in raral population comparatively Mortality on the W. J. Canal. small.

mites as follows regarding the increase and decrease of popularies "The total increase in the rural population is less than one that th

which contrasts uniavourably with the rate of increase in the companion where it is as high as 10.1 per cant. population, where it is as high as 10.4 per cent. lation:

"The decrease in the rural w. J. Canal and to defective drains. in buted to the presence of there is little or no canal irrigation. in Rallahvarh tahail. where there is buted to the presence of the W. J. Canal and to detective arranges.

In Ballabgarh tahsil, where there is little or no canal irrigation, inc.

In Ballabgarh tahsil, by 8.5 per cent., while in Delhi, where the canal population has increased by 8.5 per cent., the normalism is stationary, the normal a portion only of the tahsil. population nas increased by 500 per cent., while in Deini, where the stationari, the population is stationari, the population only of the taken hains probable belonced by the increase in the more healths treate being probable belonced by the increase in the more healths. runs through a portion only of the tahtil, the population is stationary, the increase in the more healthy tracts being probably balanced by the the increase in the tract traversed by the canal. In the Sunipat tahtil its decrease in the tract traversed by the tahtil from north to south the canal runs through the entire length of the tahtil from north to south decrease in the tract traversed by the canal. In the Sumpat takill is canal runs through the entire length of the takil from north to Sunitate canal runs through the entire length of While the decrease in the Sunitate canal runs through the entire length of the takil the decrease in the Sunitate with the takil sum of takil sum and there its enect is much marked. In the the decrease in the subject in fillegs.

taksil generally amounts to 49 per cent, it is much higher in rarked.

to these the decrease is very marked. takel generally amounts to 4.9 per cent, it is much higher in villages bordering on the canal. In some of these the decrease is very markely are for instance in the toble of the top of northern

"With the view of ascertaining the effect of the W. J. Caral of With the view of ascertaining the effect of the W. J. Caral of With the view of ascertaining the effect of the W. J. Caral of the W. J. Car onnering on the canal at the top of next page. "With the view of ascertaining the effect of the W. J. Canal of 25 villages in the health of persons bordering on the canal was taken in 1877. The the Sunipat talist bordering on the canal was taken in 1877.

Special Census in Canal Villages.

Chapter III, A.
Statistical.
Mortality on the
W. J. Canal.

	1	1869.	1891,	Heptenens
Dabarpor		590	343	39 per cent.
Khiraspur Tát		441	995	33' ,
Kheri Dya		793	519	al "
Anandpur	1	3.1	244	31
Falemer Majrah	(1,747	1,243	29.8
Khubru		1.777	1,268	24.6
	1	891	636	21.40
Karion	•••		542	07.7
Syn Kheta	*** }	750	1,237	0.4.2
kalii Rutal pur	•••	1,611		17.0
Sirdhandi	•••	56I	707	178 .,
Purkhas	•••	3,609	2,547	17.7 "
Alarant	•••	618	535	17.2
Salanii	•••	1.915	766	163
สิสระประโท	•••	Zu?	5:4	167
Hulaheti	•••]	\$454 4	} F15	1 15
librolomals	•••	1.338	1,137	15 "
Thursh Khurd		1,216	253	19
Rajanah Almid	•••	1,610	1,368	16 .,
Bujuah Kalana]	1.835	1.17/)	12-3
Klaylandi	1	1,166	1,027	119
Badelislig ur		454	405	104
Maranti		1,41	457	10

subjoined table thous the population of these villages in that year compared with the returns of 1868 and 1881:—

No.	Remost V	'illage.		3564.	1177]#4].
3	Tlipur	734	,,,	8.03	410	40}
ű	Tiliatgårm	***	[3,974	4.442	4,164
2	Paracent	640	}	2,167	1,175	1.003
4	1126-arrar			190	enn	843
ř	Nahura	***	[1,053	1,010	3,777
a	Hulaheri	***		1001	678	F45
7	Gnthi Brahminen	••		632	646	561
4678	Radoldiápur	***	{	451	877	403
13	Ihniji	•••		623	661	517
30	Kakrohi	900	\	2,743	53(4)	5'436
31	Juan	•••	\	5.533	9,030	3,603
12	Satauli			ខាត	F35	760
13	Chitanah	***		027	FAS	FOI
14	Kheri Days	***	[703	636	E 10
15	Infana Jafrahad	444		405	470	461
30	Khizarpur Jat	•••	}	413 }	460	202
17	Mailannte	•••	{	1,570	1,161	1,213
18	Karcon	***	}	£02	760	630
10	Hersanyarpur	•••	1	367	405	357
20	Bhagru	***	[723	703	GRO
27	Jharauli	***	}	611 }	614	497
22	Anandpur			351	287	24
23	Hindanali	***]	1,338	1,233	1,13
21	Junraut	***	}	048 }	670 }	630
25	Robat	***		2,841	2,761	2,811
	Total	•••		20,203	27,083	27,100

From this table, it appears that, during the nine years between 1868 and 1877, the population of these villages decreased from 29,085 to 27,983 or by 4.4 per cent; and in the next four years that is, between 1877 and 1881, there was a further decrease to 27,100, or of 3.1 per cent,, making a total decrease of 7.5 in 13 years. There was an increase of population in four but of the 25 villages; but the increase was, with one exception, small compared with the decrease in the remaining villages. After making allow-

Chapter III, A. Statistical.

Special Census in Canal Villages,

ance for the transfer of villages and the changes of boundaries, there has been an increase of 32,946 acres or of 6.7 per cent. in the cultivated area; the increase is largest in the Ballabgarh tahsil."

On the same subject Mr. Maconachie writes thus in 1880:

"The latest figures for the district generally are those of 1868; but for 21 canal villages in Sunipat, a Census was taken in 1877. Its object was primarily for sanitary statistics, but the figures are useful as showing what the canal, when misused, can do in the way of destroying human life. Their force cannot be properly understood unless they are compared so far as they may be with the population statistics of the tahsil, which have just been given, and show a very large increase of population indeed. There is no reason whatever to suppose that since 1868 the general condition of the tahsil will be found to have stopped increase of population altogether, though the rate of increase may have been retarded. But look at the facts in these canal villages: there is an absolute decrease of population: this decrease in such parts is quite as significant as is the general increase in the tahsil taken as a whole; the figures are these:—

		¥	ear.			Total popu- lation.	Agricul- turists.	Non-agri- culturists.
1842	***	•••	***	***		18,118	10,376	7,742
1854	***	•••	400	•••	•••	20,437	11.690	8,747
Per cent	increase	on popul	ation of 18	342 since 1	842	12.79	12.66	12.98
1868	•••		•••	***	•••	26,941	13,898	13,043
Per cent	. increase	on popul	ation of 18	42 since 18	54	36.89	21.28	65·49
1877	***	•••	•••	•••		25,768	13,388	12,390
Per cent	t. increas	e on popul	ation of 1	842 since	1868	6.46	4.92	8·5G
Total pe 1842	r cent.	increase O	populatio	on of 1849	since 	42:22	29.02	69-91

Births and deaths.

Table No. XI shows the total number of births and deaths

			1880.	1881.
Males	010	4++	17	26
Females	400	4++	14	23
Persons	500	1++	31	48

registered in the district for the five years from 1877 to 1881, and the births for 1880 and 1881, the only two years during which births have been recorded in rural districts. The dis-

tribution of the total deaths, and of the deaths from fever for these five years over the twelve months of the year is shown in Tables Nos. XIA and XIB. The annual birth rates per mille, calculated on the population of 1868, are as shown in the margin.

The figures below show the annual death rates per mille

since 1868, calculated on the population of that year:

1			1865	1569	1870	1871	1872	1873	1874	1875	1678	1677	1876	1879	1850	1691	Average.
Males Females Persons	•••	66- 69-	19 20 20	31 30 30	31 30 31	30 25 29	32 33 32	35 36 36	29 30 30	30 30 20	23 24 24	27 26 26	55 58 55	71 72 71	35 32 34	28 37 29	25 55 55

The registration is still imperfect, though it is yearly improving but the figures always fall short of the facts, and the fluctuations probably correspond, allowing for a regular increase due to improved registration, fairly closely with the actual fluctuations in the births and deaths. The historical retrospect which forms the first part of Chapter III of the Census Report of 1881, and especially the annual chronicle from 1849 to 1881 which will be found at page 56 of that report, throw some light on the fluctuations. Such further details as to birth and death rates in individual towns as are available will be found in Table No. XLIV, and under the headings of the several towns in Chapter VI.

The figures for age, sex, and civil condition are given in great Age, sex, and civil detail in Tables IV to VII of the Census Report of 1881, while the numbers of the sexes for each religion will be found in Table No. VII appended to the present work. The age statistics must be taken subject to limitations which will be found fully discussed in Chapter VII of the Census Report. Their value rapidly diminishes as the numbers dealt with become smaller; and it is unnecessary here to give actual figures, or any statistics for talisils. The following figures show the distribution by age of every 10,000 of the population according to the Census figures:—

Persons Nales Females	4++ 4++ +++	0—1 801 286 318	1-2 149 146 153	2-3 143 139 149	3-4 201 101 217	220 227 227 227	1,023 950 1,003	5-10 1,214 1,215 1,212	1,210 1,276 1,133	994 939 979
Persons Males .:. Females	4 4	20-25 1,034 1,013 1,058	25—30 910 952 926	30-35 876 881 871	35-40 481 503 457	40-45 705 677 737	330 345 313	50-55 543 518 570	141 156 129	510 496 552

Population.	Villages.	Towns.	Total.
All religions { 1855 1868 1881	5,353 5,358 5,356 5,356 5,322	5,330 5,455 5,120 5,108 6,543	5,430 5,360 5,346 5,380 5,228 5,202 0,569

The number of males among every 10,000 of both sexes is shown in the margin. The decrease at each successive enumeration is almost certainly due to greater accuracy of enumeration. In the Census of 1881, the number of females per 1,000 males in the earlier years of

life was found to be as shown in next margin.

Year of life.	All roligions.	Hindus.	Musalmans,
0-1	968	958	1,002
1—2	911	902	932
23 ⋅	923	895	1,025
34	988		′
45	872		

The figures for civil condition are given in Table No. X, which shows the actual number of single, married, and widowed for each sex in each religion, and also the distribution by civil condition of the total number of each sex in each age-period.

The Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows in his Census Report for the district:—

"It is customary among Hindus to marry their children at an early age. Girls are usually married between the eggs of 7 and 12 and

Chapter III, A. Statistical. Births and deaths,

condition.

Chapter III, Al

Statistical.
Infanticide.

between the ages of 9 and 15. If the parents are in good circumstances their children are married at even earlier ages than the above. The ceremony of betrothal precedes the marriage by two or three years. The age of marriage is considerably later among Muhammadans.

"Resignite and Griege among History and Marriage 12 and 15 and

or marriage is considerably later among Muhammadans.

"Rajputs and Gujars among Hindus, and Meos and Patháns among Muhammadans, were formerly suspected of practising female infanticide, but it is believed that this crime has now ceased to exist. There is not much to say as to the treatment of female children. They are not, as a rule, ill-treated, but they do not receive the same care and attention as sons, especially among Hindus. Muhammadans treat their daughters with the same care as their sons. Up to 5 years of age the disproportion between the numbers of the sexes is not so great as at a later age. The disproportion increases as the age increases, and it is possible that this is due to greater mortality among the females, either as the result of neglect or of disease. Females being naturally weaker than males are less able to resist the all-ments of childhood, and they die in greater numbers.

Disparity of the sexes.

"The majority of the Sikh and Christian population in this district are on service in the British or Native Regiments stationed at Delhi, and this explains the great disparity of the sexes in these two divisions, as a comparatively small proportion of the soldiers are married or have their families with them. Among Muhammadans the proportion of females is larger than among Hindus. To every 100 Muhammadan males there are 92.2 females; whereas there are only 85.5 females to every 100 Hindu males. Comparing the chief of Muhammadan tribes the one with the other the results are:—

			ų.	Males.	L'emales.	
Patháns	•••	•••	***	100	92.8	
Sheikhs	•••	•••	•••	100	93.3	
	***	***	•••	100.	998	
Mughals	•••	***	***	100	101.1	

"In three other sub-divisions of Muhammadans the proportion of females is even larger; thus:—

		Wales.	L'emaies.
Bilochis	•••	100	103.4
Kassábs	***	100	105.4 "
Mirásis	•••	100	103-2

"The exceptionally high proportion of females in these three classes is more apparent than real, and is probably due to the occupation of the men, which necessitates their absence from home for long periods at a time, Mirásis earn their livelihood chiefly by begging from village to village. Bilochis are largely employed as camel drivers, and Kassábs are chiefly engaged in trading in cattle and grain. Among Hindús, the only class in which there is an approach to equality between males and females is Saráogis. Among these the proportion of males to females is as 52-28 to 47-72, that is, for every 100 male Saráogis there are 91.2 females; but in the towns of Delhi and Sunípat this proportion is exceeded. In these the proportions are:—

Males. Females.

Delhi ... - ... 100 93
Sunípat ... 100 103

Causes of disparity of sexes.

"Two causes may be assigned for the differences in the proportion of females to males among Hindus and Muhammadans respectively: 1st, that more females than males are born to Muhammadans than to Hindus; and 2ndly, that a higher rate of mortality obtains among Hindu females owing (a) to their being less carefully reared in childhood than males, and (b) owing to the system of early marriages. Thus the proportion of girls

under one year to boys among Muhammadans is as 100 to 99.8, whereas among Hindu: the proportion is as 100 to 101-8, thus showing either that fewer females than males are born in Hindu families, or that the mortality among female children under one year is greater among Hindus than among Muhammadans, Again Hindu women marry at an earlier age, as a rule, than Muhammadan women, and they do not live to so great an age. The one is probably the result of the other."

Table No. XII shows the number of invane, blind, deaf-mutes

Infirmity.	Maler.	l'ems'∾.
Income Bled Beef so I damb Leptous	44	2 17 4 2

and lepers in the district in each religion. The proportions per 10,000 of either sex for each of these infirmities are shown in the margin. Tables Nos. XIV to XVII of the Census Report for 1881 give further details of the age and religion of the

rian population.

Chapter III, B.

Social Life.

Infirmities.

The figures given below show the composition of the Christian European and Eurapopulation, and the respective numbers who returned their birthplace and their language as European. They are taken from Tables IIIA. IX and XI of the Cousus Report for 1881:-

	Durants.		Males.	Temaler	Petro
Pares of Christian Population.	Europeans and Americans Euratians Native Christians	***	163 148 148	243 64 211	865 111 911
	Total Christians	•••	1,000	C22	2,017
Language,	English Other European languages	•••	763 0	263 4	1,032
	Total European languages	***	772	273	1,615
Birth-place.	British leles Other European countries	•••	161 20	C\$ -\$	a(2 42
	Total European countries	4.4	171	68	239

But the figures for the races of Christians, which are discussed in Part VII of Chapter IV of the Census Report, are very untrustworthy; and it is certain that many who were really Eurasians returned themselves as Europeaus. The figures for Europeau birthplace are also incomplete, as many Europeans made entries, probably names of villages and the like, which, though they were almost certainly English, could not be identified, and were therefore classed as "doubtful and unspecified." The number of troops stationed in the district is given in Chap. V, and the distribution of European and Eurasian Christians by talistle is shown in Table No. VII.

SECTION B.—SOCIAL LIFE.

Mr. Maconachie thus describes the village of the Delhi district: "Nothing is pleasanter, of its kind, than to walk through a well-cultivated Jat village, in the early morning, say in the middle or latter end of

The village,

Chapter III, B. Social Life.

The village.

The season, if it has been a fairly favourable one, has started the rabi crops with a decently heavy winter rain (mahawat), about the end of December; but, since then there has been fair weather, with a bright sun, and gentle west wind, and the first watering (korwa) has done its work, and brought on the crops to that stage when they want moisture again. The fields round the village are masses of green, interspersed here and there with lines of the yellow mustard flower; near the houses the crops look darker than the others, and have a stronger growth, telling of thickly-laid The wells are frequent and close, and their elevated platform enables the eye to pick them out at once in the landscape and calculate ing up and down the pretty long slope leading to the hollow which is dug out so as to give them a better purchase on the ground in making the pull roughly how much land lies under each. to raise the water; the voices of men and boys at close intervals fill the air with the musical cry made when the charst is being heaved up at the top of the pull. Streams of water trickling silently along the narrow carefully earthed-up irrigation channels tell that busy work is going on, and here and there a barefooted Ját is alternately opening up and closing the little beds (kiári), which all careful cultivators use, so as to economise the precious fluid. Spare yoke of oxen stand lazily eating straw at the mud-built manger; trees, sprinkled here and there, give at once variety and shade to the scene, which to one interested in the people is very pleasing. Several hundred acres are laboriously and finely tilled, and the sweat of the brow earns good bread. The men themselves, as before noted, are of good stature, straight-Their voices are baritone, not wanting in a rough melody, and their faces are many of them comely. Draw up to them, and unless they imagine that anything is to be got by whining, their talk will limbed, and wiry withal.

Houses.

There is no great difference in the style of houses of Hindus show them fairly well-to-do, and contented. and Muhammadans. pecuniary condition of the house-holders. The best way of noting the different parts of the zamindár's dwelling will be to give a rough description of a sample house belonging to a well-to-do Jat. In the village main street, its front will be a blank wall some ten or Turn in here and you find yourself in the dahlij (or dahlij), which is a kind of feet high, with a door somewhere about the middle. porch; it is also called deorhi, as in parts of the Panjab. This is roofed with rough wooden rafters (kari), and opens on the inner side on the courtyard of the house. If it is deep, it will have supporting pillars (thamb or sittin), supporting the main cross beam (shatir) which runs along its length. In the dahlij, horses and cows are fastened up, and the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put the takht, a large seat, and the takht, a large seat, a large se or a meditative pull at the hukah. In our friend's house, in our fri look round to the left, i.e., the north end of the dahlij, you will see a khor or than or manger put up in the corner This is generally a box-like erection made of earth; the than for horses is, say, four for high the than for horses is and the than for horses is and the than for horses is and the than for horses is an analysis and the than the than for horses is an analysis and the than the third than the t a khor or than or manger put up in the corner. feet high, the khor for cattle lower, either solid, or hollow underneath to admit of an arched recess (ták), a convenience which a thrifty common of an arened recess (1907), as convenience which and spare samindar is very fond of, and will always get into walls and spare along the later than th places when he can. At the right hand end of the khor is the kundi, a hollow made in the top of the manger for the grain of the animal (when he gets any).

The rest of the manger is kept for fodder, and the outside on odder in made either of months of the outside on odder in made either of months. on the outside an edge is made either of wood or earth to prevent the food from falling when tossed about in cating. The inner door of the dahlij is not generally exactly opposite the street door, but on one side, so as to make a screen for the chank where the women and children of the house pass much of their time, and, in the hot weather, sleep; the cattle too stand about in it. Going across the yard, we come to an ante-room or verandah, roofed like the dahliz and leading to inner rooms or kothas (also called obáras). In the corner of the dálán, or in a corner of the inside room, will be the kothí or house-granary, made of hard earth well-mixed with chaff and cowdung, and built up very carefully by the women-folk a span height at a time. It looks white and clean, and stands four feet high or more. A good wife will generally adorn her kothi with fantastic representations of peacocks, parrots, or other birds, done in chalk or with the red earth (gerhu), which is sold in the bazar: a big kothi will hold 50 maunds of grain, an average one about 30. Its lid is called pahán. The cooking of the family is done in the dálán, or, as is very often the case, the room at the east end of the north dálán will be open to it, and the cook room there (rasoí). The rooms, which are here shown at the cast end, are the principal rooms of the house. Their chief furniture will be charpais or kat, one for each member of the family; one or two low stools for the women to sit on (pidhá); the cotton spinning wheel (charkhi), and the women's clothes box, a wicker basket some two feet high (patiár); the men's clothes are kept in a locked box, together with ornaments and papers or other property of value. There is generally too a chaj or fan made of reeds, and its joints fastened with leather. For getting on to the roof, which is used for storing jawar stalks, and sleeping in the hot weather, there is the parkálá, a rough set of steps built up into the inner side of the dahlij. The water for household drinking is kept in an earthen vessel (paindá or matká)

Chapter III, B. Social Life.

Houses.

The general name for household vessels is bartan, but this Household vessels. means properly anything used or in use (bartná-bartáwa). The earthen vessels collectively are básan, and the metal ones kásan. Taken separately there is first:—

kept in the rasoi: it is brought twice daily, morning and evening,

1.—Bartná, of brass (degchi for Musalmáns), for cooking dál and khichrí —of small size—its lid is dakhni.

2.—Tokní, of brass (degcha for Musalmáns) for cooking rice and dalyá—large.

3.—Tokna (deg for Musalmáns), the same but larger.

4.—Thali (rikabi), of kánsi—a cauldron.

by the women from the village well.

5.—Bela or katora (pyálá for Musalmáns) of brass or kánsí-for drinking milk or sit (lassi)—katori, when of a smaller size.

6.—Lota or banta (badna for Musalmans), drinking vessels of brass.

7.—Abkhora, very small like a tumbler in shape and size—of brass. 8.—Chamcha, a brass spoon for stirring the food being cooked.

9.—Parát (tabak for Musalmáns) of brass, a tray in which the flour is rooled before cooking.

10.—Bilomini, or churn, an ingenious instrument, which however is well known,

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Division of time.

There will, of course, be a grinding mill (chalki) to afford the women something to do.

The divisions of time or hours of the day are as follows :-

(1).—Pasar	= 4 gharis before break
(2).—Pili phathi or tarke	of day = The bursting of the
(3).—Bási ká wakt	yellow dawn. — Time of taking the early morning meal, choit
(4).—Kalewar (5).—Dopahar din	haziri = Time of the morning meal = Noon.
(6).—Dhalá huá din (7).—Lisra pahar	= 1½ or 2 p.n. = About 3 p.n.
(8) —Pichla pahar (9).—Hándían ká vakt or	= From then to sundown. = A gharí or ½ a gharí after sunset.
Dhoráneká wakt	after sunset.

(10).—Pahar rát gaya ... =about 9 p.m. (11).—Sota ... =Sleeping time. (12).—Adhí rát ... = Midnight. (13).—Paharka tarka ... =A pahar short of dayn.

The local names of the days of the week are, beginning with Monday, Somuár, Mangal, Budh, Brihaspat, Sukr, Saníchar, Aituár, and the word for these is bár (Panjabi wár or vár.) The day of the month is tith, the month being, as usual, divided into two periods of fifteen days each (pandrawára), the fortnight while the moon is crescent being sudí, and the waning time badí; the badi is reckoned as the first. Once in three years comes the intercalary month, laund, which, when it comes in Sáwan, Bhádon, Kátak or Mágh, is reputed to bring a famine with it, as affirmed in the lines:—

"In the year with two months Sáwan, Bhádon, Kátak, or Mágh, go an sell your gold ornaments and buy grain."

Food.

The main food of the zamindár is, of course, grain, wheat and channa; jauár, makkai, bájrá with milk and ghí; rice, if he is above the averáge in means. In the cold weather, beginning with Kátik or Mangsar, he will eat jouár or makkai, mixing with it green food made of mustard leaf or cabbage. In Chait or even Phágan, the jouár is changed for wheat; or, if the man is poor, he must eat barley bread. Bájrá bread is good for the cold weather.

Meals are taken twice in the day—in the morning about ten, and in the evening somewhere about seven or eight. If a man, however, has hard work, he eats something* (básí) either bread or khichri made from bájrá, or dalyá of makkaí, or dalyá of jouár, or lassi, (sít or chha) before starting for his work, or half an hour after he has begun it. If he is well-off, he may treat himself to a sweetmeat ball (ladu) of gur, til, and wheat meal. This is considered a morning comforter, and very strengthening. His morning meal will be brought by his wife or daughter, or

^{*} Básí means stale, but in this sense it includes sad (which is strictly speaking fresh cooked food).

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Social Life.
Food.

some other woman of his family, or a boy; his food being washed down by a drink from the well, or if none is near, a pond, or he may have brought water from his house. The camindár, be he well-to-do or poor, will generally have green food for part of his daily diet. When this is mixed with meal, he calls it ság, and when it is the simple plant boiled in water its name is bliájí. This last is made often from the tender plant of the panwár (Cassiá occidentalis, see Punjab plants, p. 62), but this is only in the beginning of the rains; afterwards, when the fibres of the plant get strong and tough, it becomes unfit for such use.

Gur, when it has to be bought, is eaten as a luxury in the cold weather by men well-to-do; but if a zamindár is making gur at his kohlu, both he and his family will generally turn the product to domestic use in the different stages of its making. His shivering urchins standing in the frosty air of the early January morning over a smouldering fire near the gurgoi, will be nibbling the long stalks (pachiganda), and the raw juice will be mixed by the good wife with rice (ras ki khír), and served up as a savoury dish for the husband at his early morning meal, or mixed with milk it is a warming drink (tasmei). Again when the boiling is going on, and the gur is nearly made, a favourite comestible is obtained by mixing it with milk, and boiling it to a thin consistency. This, which is called shira, is eaten with bread, much as we cat honey.

Men, women and children eat the same food. The full food for a man is a ser; the woman generally as much as the man, and no wonder, for your good Jat wife is by no means a lazy creature or devoid of muscle. When young, she draws water for her family, it being considered a shameful thing that a man should do this office for himself; he will avoid the chaupál in taking water home. Young women and old alike spend an hour or two in grinding, early in the morning. Going through the village in the early dawn or dark, very often the only sound is that of the woman's industry at the mill. Five sers is an ordinary task, but if need be she can grind ten.

The general ways of cooking food are: (1) roti; (2) dalya; (3) khichri. The peculiarity of dalya, which is generally made; from wheat, jowar, makkai, is that the grain is bruised rather than ground; it is then thrown into boiling water in a cauldron (hándi) and boiled with salt and dál of múng or moth. Khichri is made from bájraj mixed with múng ki dál and pounded in a mortar; when this is first it is thrown into a vessel in the same way as dalya, but is cooked longer, and it should be cooked slowly; it should be thick enough to stick on a wall when thrown there. Dál is made of múng, moth and urd: the grain used for the purpose is merely split up, not ground. It is considered better to make the bread, one part of channa with two of wheat, salt being mixed also; this is called misi by camindárs, besni in towns. The thick roti, made from wheat alone, is called páni ki roti; the thin, like our (chapatti), made after rolling out, is called phulka or mánda.

The following estimate of the consumption of food by the people was furnished by the district authorities for the Famine Report of 1879 (page 212):—

Social Life.

Estimate of food grains consumed in a year by an average family of five persons:—

Ager	CULTURISTS.		Non-	AGR1 Town	Culturists and NS-People.	•
Daily. Yearly.			Daily.		Yearly.	
Seers. Mau I4 Woman 1 Old person 3 Two children 1	Grain. Wheat Barley Gram Bájra Maize Jowár Pulses (inferior) Miscellaneous	No.ol Seers 320 329 160 280 120 40 40 40 1,440 = 36 mds.		Pers.	Barley Gram Bájra Maize Jowár	No.o. Seers 480 120 100 80 40 40 1,080 seers 27 mds.

Dress.

The ordinary working dress of the Hindu zamindar is only the pagri, the dhoti (cloth worn round the loins and middle), and the kamari, a short vest with sleeves. Sometimes he takes the kamari off at work, especially in the hot weather; but he will always wear it when cutting wheat, to save his body moist with perspiration from the dust coming out of the falling sheaves. On occasions of ceremony, however, such as a holiday, at a fair, or a marriage, he will put on a longer coat called angarkha, which comes down below the knees, and in the cold weather this is often lined like a razai with cotton stuffing. This garment sometimes takes the same pattern too as our razais, and then has a rather comical effect; at others it is a gorgeous blue or purple which strikes the eye from a distance. The chádar too or cloak is worn across the shoulders over the angarkha, and is really the most picturesque part of the zamindár's custom. In the cold weather he wears a razai wound about him like a cloak (lihaf-saur). Pyjamas, i.e., trousers tight below the knee and very loose at the hips, are worn by many lambardars and other more luxurious persons. The only difference in the boys dress, as compared with the man, is that he wears a langeti round his middle instead of the dhoti, which is a ssumed when the boy is changing into the young man at 17 or 18 years of age. The women wear the gagra (also called tukri or las nga), or loose drawers; the angi, a short-sleeved vest which cover the breast but leaves the chest partly bare and the abdomen wholly so: and the orhna or cloak-veil which comes over the head and body too. The angi and orhna in the case of wellto-do zamindárs are often handsomely made of fine linen.

The Muhammadan zamindár wears the same clothes as the Hindu, and even fastens his pagri in the same way, so that it is not always easy to discern one from the other by his appearance: his kamarí or angarkha, however, is fastened differently, the Hindu

fastening on his right side, and the Muhammadan on his left. The Chapter III. B. Muhammadan women wear tight trousers (pyjamas) and in place of the angi the kutni, which is longer than the other, coming down over the stomach and waist; the chest too is eovered. Their eostume is completed by the orlna, the only difference being in the prevailing colour; a Muhammadan is very fond of blue, the Hindu inclines to saffron. The Muhammadan boy, like his Hindu neighbour, wears a langoti, instead of dhoti, otherwise he dresses like his father. Shoes are worn by both sexes of all ages, but a zamindár generally finds the bare foot best for a long journey, in which ease he earries his shoes in his hand. These shoes are rough and elumsy, being furnished by the village chamár who generally gets grain at the harvest as payment for his total services without going into details; if, however, he is paid in cash, the price of a pair of shoes is about 12 annas; if especially good, a rupee. They are made of buffalo, cow or bullock hide (the Hindu not objecting to use the leather in this way), and last about four months: the zamindur generally requires three pairs in the year.

Hindus and Muhammadans alike wear ornaments in the ear and Women's ornaments. nose, on the forehead and crown of the head, the neek, ehest, upper arm, and wrist (kalaii or poncha), thumb (angutha) and finger, ankle (takhna) and toe (ungli). Gold is not worn on the foot, but any of the other ornaments may be made of it if the wearer is rich enough to afford it: for the most part, however, the material is silver; poor people have them of pewter (rang) or bell-metal (kánsi). The number of the different kinds is very large, but it will be enough to

mention those most commonly worn.

(1).—On the crown of the head, on the choti, is worn a silver or bell-metal ornament also called choti. This is not now in fashion among the better zamindárs; the poorer caste still keep it up; a bell-metal choti costs five or six annas; for silver ornaments the price including the making up is, as a rule, Re. 1 per tola; Muhammadans have the same name for the choti and use it without any reference to caste.

(2).—On the forehead is munh ká sáz, a chain ornament fastened on the top of the head, and coming down on each side round to the ear where it joins the earring. The Muhammadans wear it, and use the name.

(3).—The earning for the Hindu is the bálí and for the Muhammadans, jhúmká: the shapes of the body of the ornament are slightly different, and the little balls are hung from it in different fashion, the bálí having three balls, gongrú, in a chain, and the jhúmká having no chain, but the ball immediately pendent from the main part. The ear also is differently pierced: the Hindu has a hole in the lobe and in the outer rim at the top; the Muhammadan has some 15 or 20 perforations all the way up the cartilage.

(4).—For the nose there is the nath, a name common to Hindus and Muhammadans; it is a ringornamented with a picture, generally of a parrot for Hindus, or imitation jewels. The Muhammadan wears the imitation jewels, but not pictures.

Social Life. Dress.

Chapter III, B. (5).—On the neck is the hansla or hansli, the usual horse shoe shape,

worn alike by Muhammadans and Hindus. Social Life.

- (6).—On the chest the women wear the jhálrá, which may be a Women's ornaments. rupee or other ornament hung on a string round the neck (7).—On the upper arm is the bázúband, a jointed ring, and tádd
 - ('d' pronounced very heavy) a broad plain ring. The Muhammadans wear only the first; Hindus both. (8).—On the wrist is the matti or kangni, worn generally by Hindus
 - only. Sometimes, however, the Muhammadans also wear it. The Muhammadan speciality here is the naugiri, a bracelet of nine pieces strung on a string: the kangni is all
 - one piece. (9).—The thumb ring with mirror (ársí) is worn alike by Hindus and Muhammadans.
 - (10).—Finger rings are worn (anguthi) on any finger by both classes.
 - (11).—On the ankle is the pazeb (or foot ornament), a ring with pendent balls, alike for Hindus and Muhammadans.
 - (12).—On the toes there are the challa and bichua for Hindus. The Muhammadans wear only the first which is plain, while the other has three bars of raised work. The challa is worn on any toe, but when the bichua is used it occupies the second, third and fourth.

Men's ornaments.

All these are worn by women only—men whether Hindu or Muhammadan wear the following:—

- (1)—On the chest the tora or kanthila made up of five chains with two blocks (singhára) where they fasten. The chains hang in front, the blocks settle down on the top of the chest on each side.
- (2).—The Hindu may wear a rosary (mála) one bead of gold and the next of coral—the Muhammadans do not wear this.
- (3).—Both wear the kare on the wrist, a plain bracelet, or ornamented it may be with some representation of a lion.
- (4).—There is the signet ring (mohr) worn by all or rather possessed by all; it is not seldom kept in the pagri.
- (5).—The big toe, whether belonging to a Hindu or Muhammadan, may get a challa.

Though these ornaments are said to belong to men, it is not a common thing to see a Hindu zamindár wearing them unless he is a dandy or dissolute fellow. Very few of the better class use them. Boys wear them up to about eighteen and earrings to book but leave them off gradually as hair comes on the face. Earring go first, then the bracelet: the youngster may keep the chest ornament a little longer if he likes, but he will get talked about and perhaps laughed at if he wears ornaments when he has become a father.

Games.

The Jat boys play hockey (gend khuli.); but the goals on either side are as wide as the place played on, and not limited to the narrow space of the English game: another game, very much answering to the fine Punjabí game of pitkaudhi, is kabadhi or touch. The party is divided into two sets each in their base, and when a man is sent by one set, one of the other set goes after him o touch him, and after touching him to get home to his own base. The other men, however, having been touched, closes with him to

prevent this. When a boy is born, the representation of a hand with outspread fingers is made with geru * or mendi on the outside wall of the house. Muhammadans use the emblem in chalk on occasions of rejoicing, such as I'd and at marriage. The Hindu may make pictures at such times, but he keeps the emblem of the outstretched hand + for a birth, and for a birth of a son, not for a girl. It is called thápá. On the sixth day after birth, rejoicing is made in the house by the women, who call in their neighbours of the same sex; sweetmeats are distributed. On the tenth day, among Hindus only, is the dasutan, a homely feast; and the ceremony of hom is performed, a mixture called sákal of rice, jhi, jau, til, sugar, and five fruits, i.e. pistachio, cocoanut, large raisins, almonds, dates, is ground up, and a little of it thrown in a fire in the room where the boy is born, and the mother and child are set before it, the room having been 'leeped' and the earthen honse-

hold vessels being changed. Till all this is done the house is unclean, and as such cannot be entered by neighbours; no

one goes into the room in fact except a woman attendant. The first great ceremony in life after birth is the betrothal in marriage. This is made usually in very tender years; there is no minimum age. The proceedings are much the same for Jats and Gujars, the Muhammadans following the Hindus with striking similarity. Matters are thus managed. The father or other nearest relative of the girl sends a' Brahmin, or a Nai (it does not apparently matter which) out on the search for a suitable match. The Brahmin goes to some friend of his own caste (or the Nai to a brother Nai) and asks for information about a suitable bridegroom. The other will tell him of such and such a boy and get the lad to his house or elsewhere to show him to the messenger, to see that he has no bodily defect, such as lameness, deafness, being one-eyed or the like. The messenger being satisfied goes back to report to the girl's father. Then on a lucky day (subh-tith) fixed by the pandits, both Nai and Brahmin will go, taking a rupee to the relatives of the girl. If they consent, the betrothal is made forthwith on the day mentioned by the pandits. On that day the relatives of the boy are collected, and if the family is one of position, persons of other families living near also. The boy is seated on a low seat (chaunki) covered with cloth; he is handsomely dressed for the occasion. The Brahmin of the girl's family will make a mark (tika) on his forehead with haldi (saffron) or roli (a mixture of

Chapter III, B. Social Life.

Social ceremonies.

At Birth.

Betrothal.

bridegroom's father with it,

^{*} Geru—see Punjab Products, page 23—is a hard red laminated earth used for * Geru—see Punjab Products, page 25—18 a nard red laminated earth used for dyeing. It is obtained from Dera Gházi Khán. Mendi (or henna) see Punjab Products, page 348, scientific name Lansonia incrmis, is a hedge-like bush, cultivated in gardens for the dye obtained from its leaves.

† After a marriage, however, the bride's mother, when she dismisses her daughter to her husband's house the first time (which is for a few days only), puts her outstretched hand in a vessel of mendi, and then marks the breast of the bridgeroom's father with it.

Chapter III, B. Social Life. Betrothal.

The Brahmin also gives him a rupee, and places a sweetmeat or some sugar in his mouth. For this service places a sweetineau or some sugar in this mount. For this barber while his confrere, the barber the gets Rs. 4 from the boy's father, while his confrere, the barber of the boy's father, while his confrere, the barber of the boy's father, while his confrere, the barber of the boy's father, while his confrere, the barber of the boy's father, while his confrere, the barber of the boy's father, while his confrere, the barber of the barb ne gets as. I from the boy's fabler, while his confrere, the barber garment. The friends also gets Rs. 3 and it may be an old garment. The matter is seen in a feast of shallow (molecule) and the matter is seen. gets is and it may be an old garment. The mends also matter is accoming in a feast of shakar (molasses,) and the matter is accoming in a feast of shakar (molasses,) saffron and borax). The amount of fee slightly varies in different tribes; pushed the time of dismissal, and is called bidgi or the time of dismissal, and is called bidgi. it is given at the time or dismissal, and is called bidgit of mariel) is given at the time of dismissal, and is called bidgit of mariel) is given (nariel) is given (nariel). Rajputs, and this is done also by the Rajputs, with the rupee to the boy, and this is done also by the proceedings. The Brahmins follow the proceedings. The Shaikhs say they have only throughout like the Guiars. without any particular ceremony. Meos have slight variations from the Gujars in details, but none of importance The expense here is almost entirely on the side of the throughout like the Gujars. boy's father, who provides the entertainment for his friends, and a verbal

Marriage.

5

Marriage should follow betrothal in the first or third, or fifth subsequent year. The even years are considered unlucky. It is considered discrepantly a girl is not married by the time chair a good discrepantly a girl is not married by the time chair a good discrepantly a girl is not married by the time chair a good discrepantly a girl is not married by the time chair a good discrepantly a girl is not married by the time chair a good discrepantly a girl is not married by the time chair a good discrepantly a girl is not married by the time chair a good discrepantly a girl is not married by the time chair a good discrepantly a girl is not married by the time chair a girl is not married by the girl is not married the fees for the ceremonial messengers. dered disgraceful if a girl is not married by the time she is 15, and it is not the custom to have her married before she is 5. The Jats say they think the girl should always be married by the time she reaches II The boy must be 5, but above this there is no limit as to years of age. The boy must be 3, but above one man has only one maximum; he will marry when he can. As a rule, a man has only one maximum; he will marry when he can. As a rule, a man has only one maximum; he will marry when he can. wife, but this is a rather the limit of cost than of fancy or custom.

A rich man will not colden told a conduction of the conduction of the colden told a A rich man will not seldom take a second wife, while the Meos, and trich man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man and the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the Meos, and the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the Meos, and the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the Meos, and the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the Meos, and the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the Meos, and the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the Meos, and the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the Meos, and the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, where the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second will not seldom take a second with the man will not seldom take a second will not seldom take a second will not seldom take a sec Frobably all Muhammadans, take two or even three, commonly, if

The ceremonial form of marriage.

tney nave the means.

The first marriage is called by the Jats and other Hindus shadi,

The first marriage is called by the Jats and other Hindus shadi,

The same way,

and it is practised by almost all Hindu tribes in the same unknown. and it is practised by almost all rimou tribes in the same way, called phere. The eight forms of the strict Hindu law are unknown.

The formalities room be decombed as follows: called pilete. The eight forms of the strict rimau law are unknown. Two or two-sind-a-half Two or two-sind-a-half. Two or two-sind-a-half the formalities may be described as follows: Two or two-sind-a-half the formalities may be described as follows: Two or two-sind-a-half two or two-sind-a-half two or two-sind-a-half two-sind or two-sind-a-half two-sind or two-si they have the means. months beforehand, the parents of the girl send intimation inti-they are willing to have the marriage on a certain day. Then not less mation is written, and the letter is called pili chilli. than nine and not more than twenty-one days before how the many and Brahmin on with it to the parents of the how the many and Brahmin on with it to the parents of the how the many and Brahmin on with it to the parents of the how the many mation is written, and the letter is called nili chilli. Nai and Brahmin go with it to the parents of the box. National Draiming of With It to the parents of the bour (between sundom. The proceeding and sunrise), as well as the day of the ceremony. The Proceeding and sunrise), as well as the day of the ceremony. The procedure the marriage is called lagan. The parents of the boy come with arrival outside procession (barát) to the village of the girl but on arrival outside and sunrise), as well as the day of the ceremony. is called tagan. The parents of the boy come with the marriage procession (barát) to the village of the girl, but on arrival outside procession (barát) to the village of the announce the announce it halts, and a Nai is sent forward to announce the announce it halts. procession (varat) to the vinage of the gri, but on arrival of the of the it halts, and a Nai is sent forward to announce the approach of The friends of the party. The halting place of procession is called kiet. The halting place of procession is called on in with music and the bride now come to meet the others and all on in with the bride now come to meet the others. party. The halting place of procession is called khet. The music and party. The halting place of procession is called khet. The music and party. The halting place of procession is called khet. The means of the party. The halting place of procession is called khet. The means of the party. The halting place of procession is called khet. The means of the party. The halting place of procession is called khet. The means of the party. The halting place of procession is called khet. The music and party. The halting place of procession is called khet. The music and party. The halting place of procession is called khet. The music and party. drums. Money, ornaments, and then the brideoroom's narty go on family. are presented at khet.* and then the brideoroom's narty go on family, are presented at khet, and for their recention either a chandle to the place in the village prepared for their recention. to the place in the village prepared for their reception, either a charpfle to the place in the village prepared for their reception, or it may be a tent. to the place in the vinage prepared for their reception, events, a called or other suitable building, or it may be a tent. This place is called or other suitable building, or it may be a tent. The third The januasa. The marriage then takes place, and on village. The januasa arrival the procession goes back to its own village. This place is called after its arrival the procession goes back to its own village.

actual ceremony is thus made. actual ceremony is thus made: actual ceremony is the bride's parents in the courtvard (chark), the dwelling-rooms of the bride's parents. the dwelling-rooms of the bride's parents in the courtyard (charle). Under this canopy a fire is lighted on a chabitera raised about a foot high and a cubit square. On the chabitra fine powdered earth is put, and on this the fuel, which is dhak wood, is piled up in regular This preparation of the earth is called bedhe. The clothes of the bridegroom are tied to those of the bride, and then she follows The ceremonial form him seven times round the fire, the right hand being on the inside. A Brahmin representing each family recites texts and declares the genealogy (sákháchár) of the bridegroom and bride back seven generations. The bride and bridegroom have nothing to say. When the turns (phére) have been made, the pair are sent inside the honse and the women inspect the bridegroom. After this he goes back to his friends, and a feast is given by the bride-party. With the procession the girl goes back too. She remains ten or twenty days in the honse of her husband's father; and then returns with a Brahmin or Nai to her parents. When the bardt first comes there is a peculiar ceremony, the meaning of which, symbolical or otherwise, is not casy to understand. The bridegroom is stood on a chaunki or a stool in front of the bride's house, and a lamp is waved in front of his face in a circle. His friends scatter paisa to the poor people of the village. The lamp is waved by one of the bride's women-friends, and the ecremony is called arth. She has a tray with a rupee, saffron, and rice on it, and this, with the lamp, she raises and lowers seven When this is done, the bridegroom goes to the janua'sa.

The Meos, a Muhammadan tribe, have of course the nikúh of their faith, and do not have any halting at the khet. The bridegroom wears the sérá, a long necklaec of flowers strung on a string, but does not as all Hindus do, in addition to the sera wear the paper head-dress called mohr. They also, instead of the lagan, send a coloured string made up of differently coloured threads, with knots tied in it to show the number of days after its arrival at the boy's home for the date of the marriage. This parti-coloured string is called kaláwah, and the proceeding of sending it is gánth. The Shaikhs read the nikúh in the orthodox way, and so do the other Muhammadan tribes.

Nearly all the tribes keep the eustom of muklawa or gona, which precedes co-habitation. This is the final leave-taking of the bride, and the departure to her husband's home for good. The bridegroom sends notice of his coming to fetch his bride, and on the other side's agreeing he comes with his friends, and the ceremony of muk-· láwa is gone through. The bride's and bridegroom's faces are turned to the east, and they are then seated on two low stools, pirhá; on the right hand the youth, on the left the girl. The veil of the bride is tied to the chaddar of the bridegroom. This ceremony is called ganth jorá. In the woman's veil are placed paisá and rice; in the chaddar of the man, betelnut and rice. After this sacrificial prayer is made (not by Muhammadans), and then the stools of the pair are exchanged, the bride sitting down on that of the bridegroom, and vice Then the sacred mark (tilak) is made on the forehead (not by Muhammadans) and necklaces are put on the husband, and the pair take their departure. The final moments are a scene of great sorrow, real or affected. The mother weeps violently and noisily; the women of the family beat their breasts as if the girl were going to her death; and the girl herself, who one would think was glad

Chapter III, B. Social Life.

. of marriage.

Mukláwa.

or nearest relative sets fire to the clothes, and a watcher is left by the fire three days to see that it does its work: he may be any relative except the son-in-law (who is not of the same got). The bones that remain unburnt are called phul, but the name properly is confined to the bones of the fingers and toes. It is a favourite act of filial piety to take the phul to the Ganges, and if a man is well-to-do he will almost certainly build a kind of memorial or mausoleum (chhatri) over the spot where the corpse was burnt. In such case of course the cremation has taken place on private land, not on the common ground like the marghat. The Muhammadan corpse is of course buried not burnt. It is washed and dressed as with Hindus: prayors are read at the grave as usual with men of this faith.

Thirteen days after a death the Jat feeds Brahmins; and Ceremonies after hom is performed as at birth. The Muhammadan performs this kind of charity to fakirs on the twentieth and fortieth days. The Hindu continues his alms once a month for a year, i.e., till the anniversary after death (barsódi). On the fourth anniversary (chaubarsi) he gives a cow to Brahmins and clothes. After this, once a year he has to feast the holy men, and the day is called khtyái.

Table No. VIII shows t

Proportion per 10,000 of popu-Language. lation. 9.910 Mindustini Bigge *** Kushmiri 1 ••• Panjabi 42 ••• Pashiù 3 All Indian languages 0,083 Nou-Indian languages ... 17

Great Mogul, is the purest spoken in India. The townspeople use it without exception, though, of course, speaking it in various degrees of excellence. But the villagers up to the very walls of the city use the Hindi or Braj of the Delhi territory, which contains a singularly small admixture of Persian. Panjábi is spoken chiefly by the Sikh soldiery, and by some colonies of Panjabi Jats who have settled in the district.

Table No. XIII gives statistics of education as ascertained at

	Education,	lintal popula- tion.	Total popula- ticu.	
Mater. {	Under instruction Can read and write	72 557	167 427	
Females, {	Under instruction . Una read and write	2:6	9.5 17:7	

the Census of 1881 for each religion and for the total nopulation of each talisit. The figures for female education are probably very imperfect indeed. The figures in the margin show the number educated among every 10,000 of each sex according to the Chapter III, B. Social Life.

Disposal of the dead.

death of relations.

Language.

Education.

Chapter III, B. Social Life.

Education.

Census returns. Statistics regarding the attendance of Greener ment and nided schools will be found in Table No. XXXVII The distribution of the scholars at these schools by religion and the occupations of their fathers. 2:

nent an The	distributi	Dari	oided it
	Detalia.		n
1		9 \ 48	13 0
	e and Eurarian history		1 1
llinia.	eni eni	\	
Otreis	***	\ ۱٫۶\ ودونه	1
childs	en of agriculture of non-agric	ulturiota n.	012
(6.1.3	01 HOU - 2	as of figure	es do not in

The last two lines of figures do not in clude schools under the Deputy Commissioner Printing Presses in the Delhi District as they steed in 1881-82.

Character, dispersition and physique of the people.

Printing Pressure in	PUBLICATIONS
	PUBLICATION
Name of Press.	Newspapers.
Mahammadi Akmal-ul-Matahia Chaamai Faiz	
Mair in many	2 3 3 1 1 1
Silara-i-Himile Pr	res 1
United Brees	1 strongl

it stood in 1881-82, is shown in the margin. The mission schools are doeribed at pages 63-Sand the other educational institutions in Chapter V. The following is a detail of the

printing presses, other than their belonging to Government, which are to be found in the district, together with the number of periodicals published at each :-

The character and disposition of the people is described in the main. of the several castes which will be found in the next section of this graphs are taken from Mr. Marca nachie's description of the villagers chapter. of the Delhi District :-"The physique of the ordinary 22. mindar of the district differs much money

the various tribes, depending apparently more on easte and tribe than anything else. The Juts of the well villaged and

generally healthy and strongly made, with a frame which compared with a frame which which will be a frame which which will b Ecucrany nearty and strongly made, with a trame which compared with a Englishman's is very light, but very often exceedingly wiry and capable of programme who accordingly with an intelligent man of the according which is appropriately an intelligent man of the according which is appropriately an intelligent man of the according which is appropriately and the second strong which is appropriately and the second strong which is appropriately and the second strong with a great endurance. The average weight is supposed by an intelligent man their class to be Chandal. The their class to be Chaudah dhari and think this a fair estimate; certain's ener cases to be Chaudah dhart with the sers, or rather more than then; sers, or rather more than the sers, or rather more it is not too small. The stat skin is a light brown, and in a young first is smooth and fresh-looking, reminding one more of the somewhat carried than another or mean by the somewhat carried than the sound that the s Is smooth and tresh-tooking, reminding one more of the transcription of the romewhat of the somewhat of the somewhat of the somewhat of the somewhat of the Halian olive complexion than anything we mean by the finderier and the Halian olive complexion than anything we mean by the finderier and the Halian olive complexion than anything we mean by the Frahmina and Ahira do the bridge of the Halian olive the Halian Muhammadan Tagah not much better.

Militar much from the 150 is consequently very interior and Aldis do by the differ much from the 150 is consequently while the Critical lands of the differ much from the 150 is consequently while the Critical lands of the consequently the consequently and the Critical lands of the Critical land differ much from the Jat in appearance, while the Gillar lie The factors and that the Charles or considerable derker. same tint. The Chanhan Rhiphts are considerably darker, the creations has often regular, and constitues are handsome features the creations. same time. The Unanuan Raiphts are considerably darker. The Indian line often regular, and sometimes even handsome features, the most line being a want of energy in the assessment which is for the most line. now often regular, and concernes even mandroung features, the great range long a want of energy in the expression, which is for the most late together months or concern. Or the monoral forms one real little Late together months for concerns. ther apathetic or sensual. Of the vomen's faces one real fields for the grown less animated over their there are no the sensual. count aparticus or sensial. Of the women's laces one feet little, but has seen less animated even than those of the men.

Seen at the allowered well are in worth. soon are animated even than those of the men. Their lighter, the arm for an at the village well, are in youth well-rounded and supplier the arm of the village well, are in youth well-rounded and supplier the time of the property of the time of the property of the time. vially with the tight-litting aller ornament chapping the birth and supplied to the tight-litting aller ornament chapping the birth and the tight-litting aller ornament chapping the birth and the tight-litting aller ornament chapping the birth and the bi cany with the tight-litting filver ornament chaping the bicer is not an incomplete or an end of complines, yet this graph is anything. Both makes because it is anything of complicity conditions as anything. Then they clean high the rule beganiful teeth, white strong and regular, which they clean high rule beganiful teeth, white The legality teeth, white, strong, and regular, which they clean high the rule legality that teeth, white, strong, and regular, which they continue to the life of the High tribes share it examples from the forms to the first of the f The hair, of course, is black of the plant o ran the limin tribes share it except the crown look (chati) The Maintenance renders smethers share the head clean, sometimes not at all 1 to a man follows then be dead not alone will concent to the man of the look follows then be dead not alone will concent to the man of the look o remains a marines that the head clean, sometime a not at all the principle follows when he does not place will generally by way of particular emineral have a parting shaven neatly from front to back of his head. The face is not shaven by the Muhammadan, though he may cut his monstache with scissors if it seem too long. The beard here as elsewhere is greatly cared for ; it is called rather grandiloquently Khudá ká mír (the light of God) ; and it is not fitting to cut it. Hindus generally shave the beard but not the moustache. But in times of mourning the nearest heir as a matter of course will shave himself clean on head and face. This is a point of religions duty. Both Hindus and Muhammadans shave under the armpit."

The population of the Delhi district, as a rule is not addicted to crime. The Gijars are bad thieves; but nearly all the other tribes are peaceable and fairly honest; crimes of violence are not After the Mutiny, John Lawrence wrote:" Of the "agrestic population, a large proportion are predatory and turbulent "by nature, butthey appear now to know their masters and behave ac-"cordingly." The lesson received in 1857 appears to have had permanent effect, for no considerable numbers of Dehli zemindárs could now be described as ill-behaved. Tables Nos. XL, XLI, and XLII give statistics of crime; while Table No. XXXV shows the consumption of liquors and narcotic stimulants.

It is impossible to form any satisfactory, estimate of the wealth of Poverty or wealth the commercial and in-

dustrial

figures

classes. in the

gin show the working of the income tax for the only three years for which details are available ; and Table No. XXXIV gives statistics for the license tax for each year since

under 5,000 souls, is shown in the margin. But the numbers affected by these taxes are small. It may be said generally that a very large proportion of the artisans in the

mar-

At	resiment.	1509-70.	1870-71	1871-72
Class I.	boses tesed	16,046	1,257	7.113
Class IL	Number taxed	10,053	601 21,624	650 2,271
Class III.	{ Amount of tax	17,010	14,210	439 13,695
Class IV.	! Number taxed	3,520	13,011	3,255
Class V.	Number taxed	1,710	43,794	***
Total	Number taxed	9,210 45,763	3,118	1,032

its imposition. The distribution of licenses granted and fees collected in 1880-81 and 1881-82 between towns of over and villages of

	18	50-81.	1691-82.		
	Towns.	Villages,	Towns.	Villages.	
Number of licenses Amount of fees	1,280 37,135	1,017 18,615	1,202 33,410	1,000 18,465	

towns are extremely poor, while their fellows in the villages are scarcely less dependent upon the nature of the harvest than are the agriculturists themselves, their fees often taking the form of a fixed share of the produce; while even where this is not the case the demand for their products necessarily varies with the prosperity of their customers. Perhaps the leatherworkers should be excepted, as they derive considerable gains from the hides of the cattle which die in a year of drought. cumstances of the agricultural classes are discussed below.

Chapter III, B. Social Life.

Character, disposition, and physique of the people.

of the people.

^{*} Mr. Maconachie writes (1884):-"There seems reason to hope that a material improvement in the habits of the Gujar is setting in. The agriculture of the hills will be greatly aided by the bands now being made or repaired; and this will probably in itself prove an inducement to pursue the path of honesty."

Chapter III, C. Religious Life. G press statistics 77 English - 2014 C: 12 01.

SECTION C.—RELIGIOUS LIFE.

Table No. VII shows the numbers in each tabell and in the whole district who filles on h

Table	No. 1		Tird nervisi 2
States, and and States	5,617 2,717 short. 2,717 1,101	8,231 41 121 4123 63	7,311 15 111 2,324 31

religion, as ascertained in the Consus of 1881, and Tell. No. XIIII gives similar flavor Tables III. III. for towns. IIIB of the Report of the Census give further details on the subject. The district.

tion of every 10,000 of the population by religious is shown in the margin. The limitations subject to which these figures may be taken, and especially the rule followed in the classification of His inare fully discussed in Part I, Chapter IV of the Course Posts The distribution of every 1,000 of the Musalman population he wet is shown in the margin. The sector!

10: Q.	Noral Total
gert.	noral Total
Annua and neal.	1313 1 754

the Christian population are given in Table IIIA of the Consus Report : 14 the figures are, for reasons explicit of in Part VII, Chapter IV of the Report. so very imperfect that it is not worth while to reproduce them here. Table No. IX shows the religion of the

major castes and tribes of the district, and therefore the distribution by caste of the great majority of the followers of each religion. A brief description of the great religious of the Paujab and of their prin cipal seets will be found in Chapter IV of the Gensus Report The religious practice and belief of the district prevent next west positivities; and it would be out of place to enter here into any di-quisition on the general question. The general distribution of religions by takells can be gathered from the figures of Table in VII; and regarding the population us a whole, no more detail ! The religion of the Jat is Hinduism; but he does no be information as to locality is available.

very much about it. He talks about Parmeshour, and the bear intelligent men say they believe in only one God, but there is traditional worship of tutelary village deition (blumide) which nes really nearer to any neart. The boundary was the halfs of man, and he has now gained his aposthesis in the Brelien's Indistrict descendants. The Brelien's Indistrict appearation of his descendants. lies really marer to his heart. way In much he honoured by worship at the their ball hade he had been a norther ball hade has been existing for generations in his name, a pathy heat, heat, Piller with places to burn little bunps in which are used all all the bunps in which are used all as a second Hiele and Mahammaka in develored effects and field in the to the holy we not this spot is a religious almost sing of spiritual spiritual and the second Who is his now be treated, he will pay a religious their to the definition of the property of the second of the se How it see and who his govern builtable calvery a little of the first first

Bally and ballete

. 3

^{*} AT THE ENGLISH OF THE PROPERTY OF THE PROPER market had before

given will be boiled hard and given as an offering to the deity. Chapter III, C. Besides the bhumián there is the gházi mard, a relic apparently of Muhammadan tradition, a tutelary deity too with a difference: the Muhammadans take the place of the Brahmins as regards receipt of beneficences in his name, though both Hindus and Muhammadans worship him. The goddess of small-pox too should have a place of worship* like the bhumian in every village of a properly devotional turn of mind, but an intelligent Hindu complains that the worship of this personage has gone somewhat out of fashion since vaccination has systematically been practised. Besides the local deities, the villager pays great respect to the gods of the various shrines in his neighbourhood. The fairs of the district depend greatly on a religious origin, but the people make the occasion of worship a time of social conviviality and amusement. Excepting the fancies already noticed about lucky days, the Delhi zamindar does not care much about demons and other evil spirits. Having seen the railway he has passed that stage: the people believe in the existence of professors of "clairvoyance," men who can tell others "what their wives say fifty miles off." This learning is called bhut bidya (dæmonology) and there was a few years ago a well known professor of it at Nyabans in Sunipat.

· Fairs in Europe are generally looked on as originated for purposes of trade. In India it is not always or often so. These gatherings here have for the most part a religious origin, being connected with some shrine or other object of religious veneration. Then when thousands of people are collected, it is natural for traders to come also, finding special opportunities for selling their wares. In Delhi, however, there is very little trading done at the fairs, which are looked on more as holiday gatherings than anything else. They are indeed a great feature in the social life of the zamindár, and though no doubt they bring abuses in their train, and are partly responsible for increased expenditure and occasional thriftlessness, yet it is hard to see the pleasant throngs of holiday-makers crowding the roads on their way to them-father, mother, and children all decked out in their best clothes, trudging along together, and a merry laugh now and again breaking out from parties here and there as one tells some trivial story to beguile the way, without feeling that there is much innocent amusement and relaxation possible and often actually realised in this way. A list is given at page 59 of 33 fairs which take place periodically in various parts of the district. They differ of course much in importance, and many are of purely local interest; yet within the narrow circle of two or three miles the advent of the fair-day is regularly observed, and in any matters concerning the zamindár must certainly be taken into consideration. The most important gatherings are those at Bahápur, some six miles south of Delhi, at Mahrauli, and at Sunipat. The fair at Mahrauli especially is a favourite resort for the Delhi people. The great one is in Sawan and is fixed yearly by popular

Religious Life. Religious belief.

Fairs.

This is called mand and is much like the than; a satirical saying in connection with these shrines may be given: "If you believe in it, it is God; if not, it is old earthen wall plaster."

Chapter III, C.
Religious Life.
Fairs.

consent for some week in that month. It is called the pankhá mela, because pankhás are carried in procession on Wednesday to the Hindu temple, Jog Maya, and on Thursday to the shrine of Kutbdin, for the maintenance of which a tolerant Government allows a jágír of Rs. 2,000 a year. The fair at Bahápur occurs in Chait on the 8th and 9th days of the moon, and on the corresponding days in Asoj. This is also a religious meeting; the origin of its localisation at Bahápur is said to be that a rájá in olden time saw a vision of the goddess Devi on the spot, and forthwith built a shrine. Subsequently to this, rájá Kidárnáth erected a temple of masonry, and the fair is said to have been held continuously since then. The fair at Sunipat is held on the 11th day of the muharram. Offerings of sweetmeats, bread, &c., are made at the shrine of Nasir-ud-din,* the local saint, who is said to have made a jihád upon the Hindus and to have met with a martyr's death.

Church of England Mission.

This mission owes its origin to the zeal of some members of the congregation of St. James' Church, who raised, between 1850 and 1853, the large sum of Rs. 30,000 which they made over to the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel: the Society made a further grant of Rs. 80,000, and in February 1854 sent the first missionaries, the Rev. J. S. Jackson and Rev. A. R. Hubbard, both graduates of Cambridge. Before their arrival however the first two leading converts were baptized in 1852. Their names deserve record. One of them, Dr. Chimman Lal, was Assistant Surgeon, and lost his life at the hands of the mutineers. The other was Professor Rámchandar, who became well known as a writer on Mathematics, and was successively Professor of Mathematics in the Delhi College and tutor to the Maharajah of Patiala. In 1857 Mr. Hubbard, and two younger men who had just joined the mission, Mr. D. E. Sandys and Mr. Lewis Roch, with Dr. Chimman Lal and two ministers of the Baptist Mission, were killed by the rebels, and the mission totally destroyed. Mr. Jackson's life was saved because ill-health had driven him from Delhi a short time before the mutiny broke out.

After the capture of the city in the September of that year the work was kept together by a small band of native Christians and enquirers, until, at the beginning of 1859, the foundations of the Mission were re-laid with much careful forethought by the Rev. T. Skelton, Fellow of Queen's College, Cambridge. In 1860 the Mission was joined by the Rev. B. R. Walter, of Hertford College, Oxford, in 1862 by the Rev. J. E. Whitley of Queen's College, Cambridge, and in 1867 by the Rev. H. C. Crowfoot, Fellow of Jesus College, Oxford. In addition to educational work among the higher and lower classes, with preaching and other religious teaching in the

^{*} Mr. Maconachie writes: "I once heard an account which made his death not so meritorious as that of a shahid, though it was certainly unfortunate. 'A riji wanted his horse and so killed him,' said my informant, a Hindu, who seemed rather to grudge unnecessary ascription of religious merit in the way of martyrdom. I turned to a Muhammadan for explanation. 'Well,' said ho, 'it was partly about a horse, but it was because he was a pir too.' And then he added: 'He was the first man in India who rode on horses: before his time there were none, and the Rajas used to ride on buffaloes,' The Hindu was silent."

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Chapter III, C. , Religious Life. Faire.

THE PEOPLE.
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Chapter III, C. Religious Life. Fair.

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bifairs and bastle of the city, one of Mr. Skellon's first efforts was to raise funds for the Church to be built in memory of the English and Indian Christians who lost their lives on the outbreak of the mutiny. After imavoidable delay, occasioned by the severe famine of 4860-61, the foundation stone was laid by Dr. Cotton, Bishop of Calcutta, in March 1865; and St. Stephen's Memorial Church was first opened for service on the 10th muniversary of the Mutiny, May 11, 1867. In 1863 Mrs. Winter began medical work among the women and children; subsequently a dispensary with a few rooms for in-patients was opened in the Chandui Chank; and a class opened for the training of native women as muses. After a regular course of teaching, both practical and theoretical, these women are examined by the Civil Surgeon, and on passing receive a testimonial permitting them to practise under the general guidance of the head of the medical mission; this class receives a grant of Rs. 75 a month from the Municipal Committee. Miss Englemann has been in charge since 1875, and the number of separate cases attended has increased from 3,363 in 1871 to 16,000 in 1883, with an aggregate of 46,154 attendances, or about three to each patient, in the course of the twelve months. The memorial stone of a new hospital for women, now being crected in the Chaudni Chank in memory of Mrs. Winter, was laid by H. R. H. the Duchess of Connaught on January 18, 1884. In 1873-74, with a view to increasing the points of direct contact with the people, the city and suburbs were improved out into eight divisions, somewhat on the pattern of English parishes, while the country round reaching to Riwari, Hissar and Karnal, was divided into eight mission districts, of which however only three, with their centres of work in Ballabgarh, Malnauli and Alipur, are within the Delhi district. An event of great importance for the stability and growth of the mission took place in 1877, when the mission was strongly re-inforced by a body of missionaries, chosen in the University of Cambridge, and largely supported by the Propagation They, with the original organisation, form one mission carried on since that date under the title of "The S. P. G. and Cambridge Mission in Delhi and the South Punjab." The following institutions are carried on by this united body: St. Stephen's College, more fully detailed below by Mr. Carlyon, with 30 pupils; a High School and six branch schools with 628 boys; 32 small schools for the lower orders in Delhi; and 24 other places attended by nearly 700 boys and young men. A school for training Christian school masters and a Boarding School for Christian boys; besides the general work in the city and country districts.

Work among the women, besides the medical work already mentioned, is carried on as follows: A European Normal School for Zanana school teachers; a Native Normal School, one upper primary, and 17 lower primary schools, (some of the latter are beyond the Delhi district); one Industrial School, Zanana pupils; and a refuge for either destitute women or those who have led a bad life. The number of female pupils is 740, making with the boys schools a total of about 2,000 pupils taught by this mission. The number of persons baptised since 1859 is men 585, women 268, children 588 or a total of 1,441. The work of the mission

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Religious Life. Rev. B. R. Winter Rev. E. Bickersteth Rev. H. C. Carlyon Rev. S. S. Alloutt

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Chapter III, C. in Delhi is carried on by nine clergymen, of which a list is given in the margin, including six of the Cau-

bridge Brotherhood, besides four in other districts, and by 13 Zanána missioneries. 1572 besides eight ladies employed in the brate-h 1879 1883 mission. The total number of towns and 1583 1890 villages occupied is 26, and there are alway

Rev. A. Haig Rev. J. W. T. Wright Rev. A. C. Maitland Rev. B. W. O. Martin 1882 1.000 baptised persons in the variety native congregations; of whom nearly half are in Delhi and its suburbs.

The Cambridge Mission.

The Revd. Mr. Carlyon has kindly furnished the following account of the Cambridge Mission. This Mission owes its origin to the efforts of some leading members of the Cambridge University. who thought that the time was come for the Universities to take a more prominent part in evangelising India. They believed their object would be best obtained by a body of men living and working together as a brotherhood, whose endeavours should be directed to higher education, (especially of Christian boys and young men), the training of Christian agents for educational and evangelistic work, literary work, and general contact with the more thoughtful natives. At the invitation of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospet. who also came forward with liberal pecuniary help, Dehli was selected as affording a most suitable sphere for realising the abovementioned objects, and the mission was started in India under Revd. E. Bickersteth, Fellow of Pembroke College, in 1877 with the title of the Cambridge Mission to North India. The present members of the Mission, with the dates of their arrival in India are as follows:-

Revd	E. Bickersteth	Pembroke College	1877
29	H. C. Carlyon	Sidney Sussex	1878
11	S. S. Allnutt	S. John's	1879
22	G. A. Lefroy	Trinity	1879
17	A. Haig	Pembroke	1883
**	J. W T. Wright	Pembroke	1883

St. Stephen's Mission College, Dehli.

This institution was founded originally in 1865, in connexion with the S. P. G. Mission School, to enable its students to pursue their studies up to the Calcutta B. A. course. 'It was, however, practically in abeyance till 1881, when it was resuscitated by the Cambridge Mission, a body of men working in connexion with the S.P. G. Mission. In 1882 its scope was enlarged, and it became a grant-in-aid institution, open to all comers. This extension was due to the failure of a scheme for reviving the old Government College und: native auspices. In October of the same year it was affiliated to the Punjab University, which received its charter as a University in that month. Its students are prepared for the Examinations of that University only. It now (July 1893) numbers about thirty students. The following is the staff of teachers:-

Principal. Revd. S. S. Allnutt, M.A. G. A. Lefroy, M.A. H. C. Carlyon, M.A. Professor. Professor. Assistant Professor of Machematics. Babu N. Mahendra Dutt. B.A.
"Nritra Gopal Bose, M.A.
Maulavi Shah Jekan
Maulavi Jamil ul Rabmán Professor of Natural Science. Professor of Parsing. Professor of Arabic. Professor of Sanskrit. Pandit Vibári Prasáda Dabe ...

This taked was opened thatty after the Muttay in consection with the S P. G. Mission in Dollah. It lim a system of large hi schools some deal with it, which are situated in mail we party of the city. At pres at theily 1888, the number of box in the business. is 428, in the High School 200. The staffed master sometiment of 0.1 untive tearliers; four lightige and Mirch water after take post in the tending. The chard is mider the sup titutend near the Principal with title to be a grantifical institution, and rest which native leading situated near the Ketwall. Chirdui Cloud. Conneeded with the Callege and School is a club touch ring about 100 rounder. It offers to to promote the intellectual and exist relianof the emplerte, and to provide them with remitte and after tive appropriate. It empires Cricial and Atlastic Departments, a Helpiting Society in which could need effect to piece are elicence. Lin Rights and Upin, and becomes environe and other subjects and given. There is no realization attack, I to it, which is eight every recoding and in manifed with a good blanty, magaziter, the organization gratues, etc.

The following new not of the Paptist Mission has been likely family held for the Reserved Mr. Carry, In 1814, the Reserved delay Chamberlain, a Dagdist Meridiancy, then employed by the Deprin Samm, at Sirihanda as talet tall room, visited Delhi for the fact time. During the river cake Mr. Charactellin retained in the city. he projected shifty without melectation. He ender preatly sectioned to Sinthauch, and thence to Seriespur, where he brands he Fran 1815 to 1818, preaching was carried on by Mr. Kerr, a. Bondist penflemm, respect by three native converts. In the latter war. Delhi was propaled as a Mirriou station in counciling with the Haptist Missionary Society in London, and a Messonary, the Revenuel J. T. Thompson, was directed to assume charge of it. He arrived at Delhi on the Grd April 1818, and continued to reside there twith a few breaks) till his death in 1850. The first Imptiem which took place in Delhi (1821), was that of a Rappit woman, who afterwards became the wife of a French officer in the vervice of the Beguni Sumra. At the close of 1822, an aged. Brahmin, followed her example, in the next year mother mative was haptized, and in 1825, four Europeans and a Paralamin joined the church. In 1826, the church consisted of eleven persons. In 1845 a chapel was erected near the Royal Palace for the use of the converts. Mr. Thompson died on the 27th June 1850, and from that time to 1854 Delhi remained unoccupied, till Walayat Ali, a native convert, was rent from Chitoura to carry on the work. In March 1856 the Reverend J. Mackay, of the Baptist Mission Society, arrived. Both these gentlemen were murdered in the mutiny of the following year.

Since the establishment of the Mission in 1818 up to this time (1856), about sixty persons had been baptized, and a native church formed; schools for both Hindus and Muhammadaus had been started in the city; and the translation of the New Testament and Psalms, and several tracts into Hindi had been printed. The Reverend James Smith, Baptist Mission Society, on his return to India in 1858, immediately proceeded to Delhi.

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Religious Life.
The Baptist Mission.

On his arrival there he found only four persons (one native), formerly connected with the church; the rest had been killed or scattered. Mr. Smith immediately recommenced daily bázár preaching and teaching in the bastis. The chapel, which had been greatly injured by the rebels, was repaired and re-opened for divine service. The work was very successful, the first year especially, amongst the chamars. Seven primary schools were opened by Mr. Smith for the benefit especially of the children of the lower classes. Preaching in their bastis was also carried on systematically. During the year, ninety-four Christians were baptized (including ten Europeans), and a new chapel erected. The Rev. D. P. Broadway, and the Rev. Josiah Parsons joined the Mission the same year. Up to 1874 Mr. Smith was assisted temporarily by several Baptist Missionaries; in that year his colleague and successor, the Rev. R. F. Guyton (now in charge, 1883), arrived from England. The following year, the Rev. W. Carey, M.B., &c., established a Medical Mission at Delhi in connection with the general work of the Baptist Missionary Society. In December 1881, a third Missionary was added to the staff of the Mission. Since 1856, the membership of the native church has increased to about 300 at the central church, which this year (1883) elected its own pastor (a native), who is supported entirely by the members themselves. There are five other little churches in the suburbs, two of which number are presided over by pastors chosen by the members. Including the members of these churches there is a total of about 500 native members of the Delhi Bapust Mission churches. Forty-six persons were baptised in 1882.

Baptist Mission Schools.

There are twenty-seven schools connected with the Baptist. Mission at Delhi. The object in their establishment has been to place the means of acquiring a knowledge of the vernaculars within the reach of the children of the lower classes, and by these means to lead to their ultimate conversion to Christianity. The schools have, with few exceptions, all been begun at the request of the people themselves, and are generally well attended. Throughout the Mission, efforts are made to educate the lowest classes of the natives, more especially the chamárs. Since 1858, there have been nine Mission Schools opened in the city, seren in the suburbs, and eleven in the district (including four in the Mirath District). They now contain nearly 1,000 scholars, 150 of whom are the sons of Native-Christians. There is in addition a boarding school containing twenty-five boys. All the forty teachers are Native Christians, and lessons on the Scriptures are systematically taught in the schools; all are of the upper and lower divisions of primary schools, with the exception of the boarding school, which aims at being a Middle School. Thirteen of the boys of this Mission passed the lower standard examination last year (1882.) Most of the school buildings have been erected at the expense of the Mission, and are the ordinary thatched mud huts, except at Shahderah (Mirath District), Paharganj, Purana Qila, Faridabad, Farash Khana, and Kalan Mahal, where there are substantial brick building the property of the Baptist Mission.

In 1876, a Medical Michon in connection with the Baptist Michonary Society was established by the Res. W. Carry, M.R., L.R.C.S., Edin, and a dispensary opened for the benefit especially of Native Christian patients, and there of the lower classes of matient of Delhi. Since its establishment the dispensary has been attended by a very large number of poor rick natives. The first year the number of except reated amounted to alcost 10,600; but year it was marly double that number.

Miss Thorn has kindly furnished the following sketch of the Raptist Zeniam Mission at Debli - Meant eighteen vents may 1865, Mr. Smith, wife of the Reverend James Smith, of the Papelet Mission, Dolhi, recognizing the fact that, in consequence of the cocial contours of the country, a large number of women could not be reached by ephinary Michanary efforts, product if perilde to gain necess to come of these highes in their reclarion, and take to them the instruction they are greatly needed. Mr. Smith was needed in these endeavours by two Native Christian women. one of whom was Patinn, the widow of Walayat Ali, who fell a martyr during the mutiny. Some difficulty two experienced at first, but the desire for instruction which the victors created room speed, and in 1867, thirty-five rentages were regularly visited and a school for Muhammadan girls and manen eponed, to which about thirty-ix came. The renium workers then numbered two Emegences and five indice nomen. After a few years, it was found desirable to close this Muhammadan behool. In Describer 1871, Miss Precrives cent from Raglated as n rending teacher; the introduced and taught the line point-line work which has gained prizes in several native lixhibitions. The number of houses visited had increased to 70. In December 1875 Mira Thorn reached Delhi, and commenced Medical work in conjunes tion with zenama visiting. The usefulness of such work is too well-linearn to need comment. During the six years work, (there were an interval of fifteen months from illness and alreace), 6,000 patients have been treated. The percentage of deaths cannot be given, as many of the patients come from a distance, and the result in their case is not known. Until 1876, the work of the Baptist Zenána Missison was entirely amongst Muhammadans, During that year invitations were received from several Hindu families, and the interest amongst them increased so rapidly that. the Hindu pupils now exceed in numbers, and for the most part excel the Muhammadans. Amongst them there are many, especially in the Baniya caste who possess great aptitude for learning. Owing to the domestic conditions of zenium life it is impossible to give details of work and its results. Instruction is given in English, Urda, Hindi, Scripture and different kinds of needle work. Several ladies have come out, and have been haptized, and by their subsequent conduct have proved themselves in every way worthy of the highest respect. There is also work carried on amongst the chamarnis in different parts of the city, and a small school, numbering at a present but nine girls, has just been commenced for this caste. And about fifty of their women and girls are gathered weekly for instruction at their own bastis. At the out-stations of the Baptist Mission Society, the

Chapter III, C. Religious Life.

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Chapter III, D.

Tribes and Castes
and Leading
Families.

Baptist Mission Girls' School. wife of the school master is employed, if possible, among the women of that district. Such is and has been the case at Maroli, Shadrah Chiproli and Baraut. The present staff consists of four English leder and ten Bible women, who teach ninety Muhammadan pupils, 131 Hindu pupils, and 37 chamárnis.

Two years prior to the commencement of zenana work, that is in 1863, a boarding school was commenced in the Mission compound for the daughters of Native Christians who live at a distance. It was under the care of Mrs. Parsons, wife of one of the Baptist Missionaries. It opened with eight girls. They were taught Uring English, Hindi, cooking and other domestic duties. It was afterwards removed to a hired house in Daryaganj, with an increase in In 1876, under Mrs. Guyton, and subsequently under numbers. Mrs. Campagnac's direct instruction, the school obtained much praise from the Government examiners, and continues to do so year by year. In May 1879, ten famine orphans were taken into the school; they were in bad health; two have since died and thirteen others been taken at different times. The conduct of all of them has been satisfactory; they appear happy, and never imply, by the slightest word, a desire to return to their old life. On Mrs. Campagnac's departure for England, December 1879, Miss Well took charge of the school. During the 20 years the school has existed a large number of girls have married from it, and to their Christica marriages we look with great hope for the future. Many have been and are still employed, as teachers. A permanent school-house is in course of erection by the side of the Zenana Mission House. It will afford accommodation for a greater number of girls, and it is intended to add grinding and spinning to the other dufies. At present the school includes fifty pupils, one English lady, four native women, two munshis, one darzi for teaching sewing.

SECTION D.—TRIBES AND CASTES AND LEADING FAMILIES.

Statistics and local distribution of tribes and castes. Table No. IX gives the figures for the principal castes and tribes of the district, with details of sex and religion, while Table No. IXA shows the number of the less important castes. It would be out of place to attempt a description of each. Many of these are found all over the Punjab, and most of them in many other districts, and their representatives in Dehli are distinguished by no local peculiarities. Some of the leading tribes, and especially those who are important as land owners, or by position and induced are briefly noticed in the following sections; and each caste villute be found described in Chapter VI of the Census Report for 1881.

The Census statistics of caste were not compiled for taken at least in their final form. It was found that an enormous number of mere claus or sub-divisions had been returned as castes in the schedules, and the classification of these figures under the number heads shown in the caste tables was made for districts only. The no statistics showing the local distribution of the tribes and covered are available. But the general distribution of the more important.

land-owning tribes is for the most part clear and decided, and will be described in the following paragraphs under the headings of the several castes. The following figures show the area held and Leading and revenue paid by each caste and its principal gots or tribes, as ascertained at the recent Settlement.

Statement of Lands held by the principal Tribes.

Gor. Amount of Land Owned BY Each Tribe. of tribe. Revenue assessed (msf. and jight included.) Major division Cacultirated, No. Name. Total. 4.703 1,650 0,653 Aplintza 8,650 1.810 1.259 600 Barar 2,473 Auin. 3 2,233 Jhangrolia 1,615 1,188 877 ... 257 Kalalya 1,255 1.512 2,397 2,021 Nirban 4.497 7.418 7,681 ••• Miscellaneous 8,436 3,743 12,179 14,010 10,540 31,741 TOTAL 21,105 35,027 Bichas BRAININ 34 0,832 3,857 13,660 Bardnáj 13,501 ••• 1.738 2,239 6.410 Bashis' 2,257 610 ... 1,207 Parasar 3,911 5,118 ••• 7,717 2,254 Kausis 1,377 0,001 11,083 ••• Gotam 1,850 4,110 3,815 ... Miscellancous 16.784 8,107 24,031 27,604 TOTAL 42,236 17,013 59,249 05,554 Barduáj 14,963 8,057 23.019 26.263 Bashist 1,330 3,578 4,908 2.558 ••• 3 Bichas 2,792 1,247 4,039 8,796 ... Knusis 1,510 2,174 480 1,996 2,408 Miscellaneous 3,202 5.378 3.976 ••• TOTAL 22,768 16,570 39,338 39,001 19,633 Antal 20,514 40,147 44.243 1,673 3,478 Udár 474 2,147 3,378 ••• 3 5,604 Bhal 2,126 6,008 Bainiwal 1,005 583 1,588 1,764 ••• Bhuiyan 1,053 207 1,320 1,429 6 Tang 1,805 1,087 2,892 4,908 Tanwar 1,857 132 1,989 2,626 ... Palan 1,173 717 1,890 2,240 8 Chalesar 1,223 1,780 557 1,980 ••• 10 Man 2,048 2,188 4,831 ••• 3,701 Jadón Bhujan 2,028 412 2,440 8,825 3.115 12 Sulanghi 6,259 2,566 ••• 8,397 13 Chikárá 4,880 2,950 7,845 3.150 14 Ráwat 1,510 538 ••• 2,048 2.645 16 16 Dhinkar 8,041 1,768 4,809 ... 6,674 12,547 11,907 Sabrawat 6,472 19,019 19,930 17 Dakar 4,900 16,807 ••• 19,815 18 19 1,426 Kakernul 162 1,588 2,453 2,765 Kuharia 1,624 508 2,132 20 Púneya 2,213 834 2,547 4,142 Malak 2,308 506 2,814 3,215

Statistics and local distribution of tribes and castes.

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TOTAL

Chapter III, D.	,	St	atement of Lane	ds hel	d by the p	rincipal !	Pribes.—(1	Contd.)
Tribes and Castes and Leading Families.	tribs.	_	Gor.		упоси	T OF LAND OF	ered di stc	e Teibe.
Statistics and local distribution of tribes and castes,	Major division of telbs.	No.	Name.		Gullfrated.	Vuentitiented.	Total.	Rovenuc assessed (mely and julyte included.)
	JAx.—Continue l.	San San San	Parrie Melak Rhúmálo Nasiro Mekkiro Darál Mundtenr L-kre	007 047 047 047 047 047 047 047 047 047	4.269 1,393 1,312 3.679 25,5(0 12.194 1.159 3.463 2.250 1.029 9,353 1.071 5,458 1.071 5,458 1.070 9,953 3.635 6.859 2.19	1,273 7.55 7.55 1.273 1.273 1.250 1.251 5,571 5,571 5,571 1.58 4.912 2.504 1.109 1.151 4.913 4.5	6.403 0.603 1.505 4.263 35.029 16.601 1.170 4.509 1.519 2.903 1.157 14,909 1.402 6.152 0.453 3.150 14.193 6.127 9.126 3.701 0.054 3.701 0.054 3.705 3.61,075	5.053 1,113 2,472 5.053 54.051 17,057 0,570 13,472 2,573 2,5
	Chouse,	1004	Antal Eschimaya Bish Subschh Missellancous Total	****	1,0°6 1,600 1,600 1,607 3,376	491 1,935 1,039 701 3,370 7,559	1,5°0 3,4°6 2,457 2,157 2,103 6,745	1427 2.784 2.497 2.003 6.702
	HAFFUE	1034	Cholin Jadhinsi	400	5,430 1,527 743 1,775 405	6,025 133 253 612 63	10,525 1,657 1,631 2,587 475	9,741 2169 1,879 2,429 554
	Gusan,	1 23 4 5 C 7 8 P 10 11	Adhina Bhodane Badha li Tanwar Chendaila Lohmor Sesumabe Sagri Lolar Chinkar Kasane Miscellaneous	200	1,553 5,291 2,116 2,509 2,836 1,175 1,127 7,473 1,291 3,529 1,655 12,358	512 10,155 2,125 6,169 638 334 1,049 2,501 351 1,658 1,059	2,145 15.746 4.541 8,778 3.544 1,559 2,167 10.277 1.504 5.775 24.262	2.43 6.675 1.575 1.575 1.431 2.683 2.493 2.493 1.492 6.407 8.115 15,521

CHAP. III.—THE PEOPLE.

Statement of Lands held by the principal Tribes.—(Contd.)

	Sta	tement of Lands he	ld by the p	rincipal I	!'ribes.—((Contd.)
tribe.	· 	Gor,	Амоик	T OF LAND OY	VNED BY BACI	I TRIBE.
Major division of tribe.	No.	Name.	Oultivated.	Treultivated.	Total.	Revenue assessed (maaff and jágír included.)
SANT.		Miscellancous	1,021	195	1,216	2,088
REAH.	1	Tanwar Miscellaneous	3,894 1,493	1,556 1,444	5,450 2,937	5,353 2,460
<u> </u>		Total	5,887	3,000	8,387	7,813
Magi.	1	Banáral Miscellaneous	1,532 1,237	378 320	1,910 1,657	2,286 2,420
		TOTAL	2,769	698	3,467	4,706
Соптан.	1 2 3 4 5	Bhari Bargala Bharaddáj Rawat Gaur Miscellaneous	3,496 5,454 1,407 2,107 1,771 1,420	1,175 1,668 175 327 323 176	4,671 7,122 1,582 2,434 2.094 1,596	4,436 6,374 2,398 3,449 3,029 2,616
		TOTAL	15,655	3.844	19.499	22.302
	·	Land owned by other Hindus	25,289	13,517	38,806 -	62,596
-	1	Total owned by Hindús Bûkhárí		2.38,605	6 78.891	7.34,154
SAITID.	2: 3 4	Girdbuzí Jafari Kutbí Miscellaneous	5,948 2,372 2,068 1,371 1,575	2 319 509 559 562 191	8,267 2,881 2,627 1,933 1,766	9,834 4,675 1,298 3,301 1,967
	1 1	Total	13,334	4,140	17.474	21.075
Вітооп	•	Miscellaneous	1,406 869	196 115	1,602 1,084	2,632 1,371
	1	Ghori	2.375 1,234	311	2,686	4 003
PATHAN	2	Bakhtyár Miscellaneous	1,353 1,145	1,051 352 205	2,285 1,705 1,350	2.707 1,272 2.174
1	1	Total	3,732	1,608	5,340	6,153
Meo. Subiku.		Miscellan eous	7,103	3,383 1,101	10.486 2,205	11,199 1,414
0	1	Balút	8,207 1,038	4,484	12,691	12,613
MR	3	Tanwar Bhalyáno Miscellaneous	3,506 4,090 2,415	713 744 1,542 096	1,751 4,250 5,632 3,111	1.322 4,407 5,114
		Total	11,049	3,695	14,744	3,996 ·
<u></u>	<u>. </u>	<u> </u>	1	5,500	14,744	14.839

Chapter III, D.

Tribes and Castes and Leading Families.

Statistics and local distribution of tribes and castes.

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even class themselves with one or the other party. Thus the even class themselves with one or the order party party and Castes Muhammadan Gújars of Pánchi Gújrán called themselves Dahiyás, Tribes and Castes Muhammadan Gújars of Pánchi Gújrán called themselves Dahiyás, Tribes and Castes Muhammadan Gújars of Pánchi Gújrán called themselves Dahiyás, Tribes and Castes and so do all the neighbouring villages; though no one appears able to give reasonable explanation why. The historical tradition of the origin of the Dahiyas is embodied in a characteristic story as follows:-The son of Raja Pirthwi, Harya Harpal, being defeated in battle by ng of Delhi, took refuge in a lonely forest, which, the number of its trees, he called Ban-anta, now corrupted into Barautá in Rohtak. There he ruled, and his son Dhadhii after him. Dhadhii one day, in hunting, chanced upon a certain pond or tank near Pogthala in the same district, where the Jat women had come together to get their drinking water. Just then a man came out of the village, leading a buffalo-cow-. calf with a rope to the pond to give it water. The animal, either from fright or frolic, bounded away from the hand of its owner, and he gave chase, but in vain. Neighbours joined in the pursuit, which was nevertheless unsuccessful, till the animal in its headlong flight came across the path of a Jaini going along with two gharras of water on her head. She quietly put out her foot on the rope, which was trailing along the ground, and stood firm under the strain which the impetus of the fugitive gave. The calf was caught, and Dhadhij, looking on with admiration, became enamoured of the stalwart comeliness of its captor. Such a wife, he said, must needs bear a strong race of sons to her husband, and that husband, notwithstanding the fact of her already being married, he forthwith determined to be himself. By a mixture of cajolery, threats, and gift-making, he obtained his desire, and the Jatni married the Kshatri prince. By her he had three sons, Tejá, Sahjá, and Jaisá. Dhadhíj gave his name to the Dahiyas, and his children spread over the neighbouring tracts, dividing the country between them. Tejá's descendants live in Rohtak, Sahjá's partly in Rohtak and in 12 villages of Delhi, Jharaut, Jharauti, Anandpur, Rohat, Kakrohi, Kheri Manajat, Malha, Mazra, Hasany-Kárpur Tihará kalán, Tajpur Tihárá khurd, Kheri Dahiyá, Bhatgáon, Nasirpur Bangar. Jaisa's descendants live in Rohtak, and in the following 16 villages in Delhi-Mandaurá, Mandauri, Turkpur, Bhatgáon, Bhatánah, Jáfarábád, Bidhnauli, Garhi bálá, Fatehpur, Abbaspur, Bhuwapur, Mohammadabad, Koali, Nahrah, Nahri, Hilálpur, Saidpur. Another tradition derives the name Dahiyá from Dadhrérá, a village in Hissár, which it thus makes the starting place (nikás) of the tribc.

The Ahúláná tradition is not so picturesque as that of the Dahiyas. Their origin is traced to Rajputana. Their ancestor, whose name is not known, was coming Delhiwards with his brothers Môm and Sóm in search of a livelihood. They quarrelled on the road, and had a deadly fight on the banks of the Ghátá naddi. Móm and Sóm, who were on one side, killed their nameless kinsman, and came over to Delhi to the King there, who received them with favour, and gave them lands; to Som, the tract across the Ganges, where his descendants live as Rajpúts now in Muzaffarnagar and Meerut. Mom was sent to Rohtak, and he is represented now by Jats there, in Hansi, and Jhind. The Rohtak

Chapter III, D. Families.

Traditional origin of the Dahiyas,

The Ahulana tradition.

Capter III, D. party had their head-graviers in Lighting in their cities, and there, or something minutes and the second frame. Triosani Gastas different directions, some coming into the Dent Catally Different and Leading of these migrations are mist, and nice are coming to the property of these migrations are mist, and nice are companied to the property of these migrations are mist, and nice are companied to the property of t والمستواد المستواد المستود المستواد المستود memorial time ago. The different into Describe and Person. TEMORAL TIME AND ALL MINISTER TO DESCRIBE AND FAMILY.

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W. Lal in its Stars Series in the series of But the option of the contract و المارية الما the manufacture of the series of the Give that is a Give that the a Give that Tigáon, in Ballabgarh, Mahranli and the villages to the south of it in Chapter III, D. the same talisil, and Panchi Gujran in Sunipat, where the men are Tribes and Castes Muhammadans, and are worse cultivators even than their Hindu kinsmen, who themselves are not much in this way. In Delhi the men of Chandrawal and one or two other villages are Gujars, and all the The Dabi Gujar. charakiddies of the civil station are drawn from this tribe, who, for the consideration of five rapeos per month, waive their prerogative of house-breaking. So far fixed has this discreditable black-mail become that the police virtually recognise it, and in one or two cases where a rash resident attempted to dispense with the services of a charabidar his house was promptly plundered. Such at least is the There is perhaps some difference of morality in favour of the Gajars round about Tigaon, as compared with the men of the hills. The canal (curious fact) has rendered cattle-lifting more difficult, as its banks in Ballab zarh tolesil are rather steep, and the bed lies low, and the Gujar cannot easily get the cattle he is driving off neross it except at the bridges, which of course delays his operations and increases the chance of their being detected. Tigaon has a very heavy chankidáristay to pay.

A more pleasing subject is the Brahmin. He is not a first-rate agriculturist, but far better than the Gujar, and in character he is quiet and peaceable, honest and not much given to litigation. The proverb says of him, however, rather unfairly: "It is as common for a Bráhmin to do ill, as it is for famine to come in the Bágar tracts," (i.e. the dry tracts toward Bilanir and Sirsa,) Yet his general peaceableness is testified by the admonitory rhyme:-

"It is a bad thing for a Brahmin to wear a knife," There is a tribe, called Tagahs, originally Brahmins, but who do not now intermarry with them. They say that they differ from the Brahmin only in not habitually collecting alms, which they have given up (tyág-dena), and hence their name. As Hindus they are fair cultivators, but when made into Muhammadans they, as is usual, deteriorate. The Tagahs are found mainly in Sunipat, but there is Fatchpur Tagah in the south of Ballabgarh. The Brahmins are spread pretty fairly over the district. Their largest village is Tilpat in Ballabgarh, but they are co-sharers with Jats in the first class estates of Bhatgaon and Murthal in Sunipat, and in other places. The Ahirs are of some importance. Their tradition claims for them a Rajput origin, and the story goes that, when the incarnation of Krishn took place in Bindrában, some demon carried off the cuttle of an ancestor of the tribe, and also the man himself while tending them. Krishn, by his amnipotence, created a man for the purpose of tending the cattle, and brought back the cattle for him to take care of, and his descendants were henceforth to be called Ahirs. This is a curiously Irish story, and does not deal well with the original herdsman; but another tradition steps in to add that the defeated and disappointed demon, when he saw his evil intentions thwarted, brought back the abducted cattle-driver, so that he and Krishn's man have between them to account for the tribe. present representatives are a quiet, orderly set of men, first-class cultivators, and altogether unobjectionable to a degree hardly equall by any other class. Yet the proverb, (made probably long a

and Leading Families.

Brahming of the district.

Tagalis.

Ahirs.

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Bakhsh's daughters was married to Murza Pacchung, Mirza Ilahi apparent of the ex-King, who died before the Mutiny. Mirza Ilahi Tribes and Castes and Leading and Leading and was rewarded by the release of his estate, and got a pension of about Rs. 1,200 a mouth; he died in March 1878, and left three sons. Mirza Sulemán Sháh, the eldest, who is now the head of the family, and gets half the pension of his father, and is also in possession of a jágír in village Aghwanpúr. The second son, Mirza Snráyá Jah, gets Rs. 300 a month out of the pension of his father, and is married to the daughter of the ex-Nawab of Tank. The third son or the youngest, Mirza Ikbal Shah, gets Rs. 150 a month out of the pension of his father. Among the members of the ex-Royal family, Mirza Farkhúnda Jamal, son of Mirza Fatchúlmúlk, the heir apparent of the ex-King and grandson of Mirza Ilahi Bakhsh by the mother's side, is worth notice. He gets a pension of Rs. 161 from

Mián Muinuddin is descended from Shah Nizamúddín, Anrangabadi, who was Pir of Alamgir II. The most famous saint of this family was Manlaná Fakhrúddín, Pír of Shah Alam; his followers are in very large numbers in the Panjab. Shah Suleman Sahab was one of his Khalifas, who was a very famons Pir in the frontier district of Dera Ghazi Khan, whose son Mian Ala Bakhsh is still alive and much revered. Maulana Kutbúddín, son of Maulana Fakhr, was the Pir of Akbar Shah II, and Maulana Ghulam Nasiruddin alius Kale Sahab, son of Maulana Kutbúddín, was the Pír of the ex-King Bahadur Shah. After the death of Mian Kale Sahab, Mian Nizamuddin was the head of the family. Mían Kale Sahab had four sous, Nizamuddin and Muinuddin by the first wife, and Wajiuddin and Kamaluddin by the second wife, who was a princess of the Mughal family. Mian Nizamuddín had a jágír in Haidarábád, Dekkan, to which Mian Muinuddin has succeeded. The other two sons have a separate jdgir in Haidarábád. Wajíuddín is dead, and Mían Kamaludín is in possession of it. This family is highly revered by all classes.

HakimMahmud Khan-Khwaja Muhammad Kasim and Khwaja Muhammad Hashim, the ancestors of Hakim Mahmud Khán, came from Kashghar with the Emperor Babar, settled in Haidarábád, Dekkan, and died there. In the reign of Akbar the great, Mulla Ali Kari and Mulla Ali Daud were invited to Agra or Akbarábád, and were the most learned men of Akbar's Darbar. Up to the present day these two Mullas are considered great authorities because of the commentaries which they wrote in Arabic on difficult ancient books and physics. Hakim Fazal Khan, son of Mulla Ali Daud, was the first man of the family who became a physician, and was a famous physician of Akbar's Court. Hakim Muhammad Wasal Khán was physician to Aurangzeb. His two sons, Muhammad Akmál Khán and Muhammad Ajmál Khán got a jágír of two lacs a year in the Patna district, and a monthly pay of Rs. 3,000. After Akmál Khán's death, his son Muhammad Sharif Khán got a jágír of eight villages—Palri, Palra, Mukimpur, &c., in the parganas of Panipat and Sunipat, aggregating in value Rs. 25,000. Hakim Sharif Khan in his old age, and

Families.

Leading Families.

Chapter III, D.

Tribes and Castes and Leading Families.

Leading Families.

in the reign of Shah Alam, got his jágír transferred to his six seus; and the sanad has the signature of the British authorities, which Hakim Mahmúd Khán has in his possession. After the death of Hakim Sharif Khán, the British Government confiscated the jágír and gave a pension to his six sons in lieu of it. Hakim Sadik Ali Khán, the son of Sharif Khán, besides this pension had three júgír villages in the Mirath District—Dasna and two others. Hakim Sadik Ali Khán had three sons,—Ghulam Muhammad Khán, Mahmúd Khán and Murtaza Khán. Ghulam Muhammad Khán is dead. Hákim Mahmúd Khán is now the head of the family; he is a famous physician. He is a man of great learning, and is descended from a family of high esteem in the courts of the Mughal emperors.

Hakim Muhammad Husain Khán traces his descent from Nawab Khán Khanan Mahabat Khán, a great personage in the reign of Akbar the Great. The Hakim's grandfather, Hakim Razi Khán, was a famous physician in Shah Alam's time. The Hakim's father and eldest brother, Fakhruddin Hasan Khán and Razinddin Hasan Khán, were great physicians in the court of the last Mughal king. Hakim Muhammad Hussain Khán is a native physician of renown in the city, and is an honorary magistrate in the city.

Lala Sri Kishan Dás, Gurwala, Banker, belongs to an old family of bankers in the city, which is well known in every part of India and in other countries. The ancestor of this family who got the name of Gurwálá was Lalá Radha Kishan. In 1732 when Ahmad Sháh Abdall invaded India this family first came into notice, and has since Lalá Radha Kishan had nine sons—(1) continued famous. Bahadur Singh, (2) Zaokiram, (3) Sheonath, (4) Mohkam Singh, (5 Jagannath, (6) Magniram, (7) Kedarnath (8) Girdhari Lal. and (9) Khushal Rai; of these nine the first five died without issue. Of the sixth, there is one son, Shankar Das, living; of the seventh there is one son, Kallú Mal, living; of the eighth there is one Munnaji living; but all these are of no importance. The present family is descended from the youngest son, Khushal Rai, whose son was Mathra Das. His son was Bakhshi Ram, whose son was Ramji Das. Narain Dás was the son of Ramji Dás, and adopted Srikishna Dás, who is now the head of the family. They were all famous and wealthy bankers. The present head of the family is a lad of about 18 years of age.

Banker family. His great grandfather Lalá Harsukh Rai did good service to the British Government in the reign of Shah Alam. He built the famous Jain temple at Delhi which cost him eight lacs of rupees. For the good services of Lalá Harsukh Rai, his son Shugan Chand got a jágír of three villages, Alipur, &c., from the British Government in Lord Lake's time, for which the Lalá possesses a sanad. His father, Girdhar Lal, did good service in the Mutiny, for which he possesses very good certificates; Lala Paras Dás is a well educated and respectable man, and a man of large property.

Lalá Dharam Dás, Banker.—Gulab Rai was the head of the family, who 200 years ago rose to some importance. He came from the Saharanpur district and settled in Delhi. He had two sons,

Mehr Chand and Megraj. The present family is descended from Mehr Chaud. His son Totaram had four sons, Sewaram, Sangam Tribes and Castes Lal, Mathra Das, Salig Ram. Lala Saligram left four sons, Lala and Leading Dharm Das, Lala Bhagwan Das, Latá Ajuddhia Parshad, and Lalá Ishri Parshad. Lala Saligram was the Treasurer of Government Treas Leading Families. suries in the Delhi Division. A few years ugo the four brothers divided the property and separated. Lala Dharm Das, the eldest, may be considered the head of the family, though Lala Ishri Parshad, the youngest, is at present the Government Treasurer in the three districts of the Delhi Division. Lala Saligram and Mathra Das did good service to Government in the Mutiny and got Wazirpur village in jugir, which has lapsed on their death, but proprietary right in 94 histor in this village still continues.

Lala Jagan Nath, Nahrurala, Banker.—This man is the head of an old banking firm of Delhi. The first man of importance in this family was Lala Moti Ram; his con Lala Khushali Ram and his grandson Makkhan Lal were rich bankers. Makkhan Lal's son, Lala Ramji Mal, served Government in the Commissariat Department at the time of the Bharatpur and the first Káhul wars, for which the Lala possesses testimonials. Lala Ramji Mal's son, Lala Namin Das, was a banker of some renown and great wealth. Lalah Jagan Nath, son of Narain Das, has closed the banking firm but is wealthy.

He is respected in the city and leads a quiet life.

Lala Ramkishan Dás, Banker,-The first men of any importaure in this family were Lala Pala Mal and Mutasaddi Mal, who used to supply shawls, &c., to the ex-king's Toshakhana and were renowned brokers. Lala Chhunna Mal, son of Mutasaddi Mal, rose to some eminence, and after the Mutiny was appointed Municipal Commissioner and Honorary Magistrate and got the title of Rid and a reward from Government for his good services in the Mutiny. He died in January 1870, and was succeeded by Lala Umrao Singh, who got his place as Municipal Commissioner and Honorary Magistrate, and got the title of Rai Bidradur at the time of the Imperial Assemblage in 1877. Rái Báhádúr Umraa Singh died in 1879. He was a clever man; he erected some machines in his house and constructed some electric telephones for the Delhi Police Stations.

Lala Ram Kishan Dás succerded Rai Bahadúr Umrao Singh as head of the family and is an Honorary Magistrate. This family

is considered the wealthiest in the city.

The principal families in Sunfact arc: (1st) the Sayad family of Sunipat; (2nd) the Brahman family of Gadhi Brahmanán, and a

Brahman family of Sunipat,

Sayad Muhammad Zaki's ancestor, Sayad Muhammad Yusuf, is said to have been the Pir of Shuh Alam, whose son Muhammad Islam Khán was the Governor of Gnjrat. Sayad Muhammad Zaki, who is sixth in descent from him, is a landed proprietor and jágirdár, p and is a man of some influence among the Muliaminadans of the town of Sunipat,

Kunwar Prithi Singh.—His great grandfather Sheo Nath Singh. rose to eminence in the reign of Shah Alam, and got the title of . Rája with a small jágír which has descended to Prithi Singh, who

Chapter III, D. Families.

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Leading Families.

did good service to Government during the Mutiny and got some land in the town of Sunipat as máfi. Prithi Singh is a landed proprietor and jágí dár in Sunipat and a man of some influence.

Pandit Wazir Chand.—His grandfather Pandit Ganeshi Ram, was a man of influence in Sunipat. His son Pandit Nanak Chand served Government as thanadar, ziladár and Deputy Collector of the Western Jamna Canal. During the Mutiny Nanak Chand did good service to the British Government, for which he got a jágír of three villages—Mughalpur khurd, Hareoh and Jhanjhauli, worth Rs. 3,000. After his death half the jágír continues to his son Pandit Wazir Chand, who is now an Extra Assistant Commissioner in the Punjab. Pandit Wazir Chand's cousin, Dewan Singh, is a Deputy Collector on W. J. Canal, Hansi Division.

The principal families in Ballabgarh tahsil are:

(1.) The ex-Raja Nahar Singh's family.

(2.) The Sayad family of Moihna.
(3.) The Sayad family of Faridabad.
(4.) The Shekh family of Faridabad.

The ex-Raja of Ballabgarh's family.—This was a Jat family

of Got Tawatia of Alawalpur. (See Chapter VI).

Mir Ashraf Ali of Moihna.—His ancestor Sayad Shahabuddin, came with Shahabuddin Ghori from Gurdez and was appointed Governor of Kára Mánakpur, where he settled. One of the family, Sayad Chhajju, inhabited Bhaunkar in the Gurgáon district. As the family increased, one Muinuddin founded Moina after his name, which has been corrupted into Moihna, the present name of the village. Sayad Afzal Ali, grandfather of Sayad Ashraf Ali, entered the Indian army and was a resaldár. He left two sons, Mir Hidayat Ali and Mir Jáfir Ali. They were both resaldárs in the Indian Army. During the Mutiny Mír Hidayat Ali and some of his relations who were also in the army were on leave. They assisted the British officials who came to their village during the Mutiny with Mr. W. Ford, the Collector of Gurgáon, and escorted them safe to Delhi, and joined the British Army on the Ridge, for which loyal services Mir Hidayat Ali, Resaldar Sardar Bahadur, got the village of Moihna in jágír. Many of his relations are still in the army. Sayad Barkat Ali, his nephew, is a resaldár. Mir Masum Ali, his other nephew, was an Inspector in the Salt Customs Department and has retired on pension. Mir Ashraf Ali is the present head of the family, and the jágír continues in his name.

Mir Ahmad Shafi of Faridabad.—The ancestor of this family, Sayad Afzal Ali, was called from Bokhara by the Emperor Jahangir at the request of Sayad Murtaza alias Shekh Farid, the founder of Faridabad town, and settled in Faridabad. He got a mafi of 400 bighas of land with two wells and a large garden. Since then the family has lived in Faridabad. Some of the family have served in Raj Bharatpur in respectable posts. Mir Iftikhar Ali still gets a pension of Rs. 50 a month from the Bharatpur Raj. Mir Amjad Ali, Resaldar, the last head of the family, was in the Indian Army and did good service during the Mutiny. For his loyal service he received three villages in the Bulandshahr district. He also bought

several villages in the Delhi district. He was a Resaldar Major Chapter III. D. Sardar Bahadur in the Indian Army. He died about six years ago. His son, Mir Kasim Ali, who was an Honorary Magistrate in the Tribes and Castes city of Delhi, died at the same time, and was succeeded by his son Ahmad Shafi, a minor, who is now the head of this family, and the Leading Families. owner of a large landed property in the Delhi district, and of three villages in the Bulandshahr district.

Shekh Abdurrasul of Faridábád.—His ancestor Kazi Malik Ali, who is said to have been the head Kazi of Herat, came to India in the reign of Ghiasuddin Balban, settled in Panipat, and got a jágir. He was the founder of the Ansari family of Panipat. The Faridabad Shekh family is a branch of the Ansari family of Panipat. Muhammad Azam, one of the family, was the Governor of Mirath; Shekh Shakarulla, the grand son of Muhammad Azam, came to and settled in Faridabad, and got an assignment of some land and two wells. When the Rajás of Ballabgarh became powerful, one of this family, Shekh Rahimulla, got the post of Treasurer under Raja Hira Singh. Shekh Rahimulla had three sons, Abdulla, Amanulla and Kudratulla. Shekh Abdulla was also Treasurer in Ballabgarh Raj. One of his sons, Ghulam Haidar, was resaldar in the Indian army, and for his faithful services got a máfi of 4,000 bighas of land in village Talwa, district Sirsa, which still continues. His son Abdulghaui is an Extra Assistant Commissionor in the Ráwalpindi district. One of the grandsons of Shekh Abdulla, Abul Hasan, was a tahsildar in Oude and has now retired on a pension. Sheikh Ilahi Bakhsh, the eldest son of Shekh Amanulla, was in Raj Ballabgarh, and was a rakil from the Raja in the Court of the British Resident at Delhi, and was an influential man in Faridabad. Shekh Abdurrasul, the youngest son of Shekh Amanulla, served the Government as thánádár, tuhsildar and Extra Assistant Commissioner in the Punjab, and has retired on a pension of Rs. 218 a month. He is the present head of the family and holds some landed property in Faridabiid.

In the Delhi tahsil there is one family of Jats of some impor-The present head of the family is Faujdar Baldeo Singh This family is related to the Rajas of Bharatpur. Chaudhri Hukmi Singh of Mitraun was the first man of this family who acquired influence among the zumindárs of the surrounding villages. His son Dayaram became an important man. In the time of the Marhatta raids Dayaram got five villages in jagir from Sindhia, viz. Kaloi, Salana, Salam, &c., in the Rohtak district, and was suba of Rohtak. At an early period of the British rule he got Mitraun in jágír, which is said to have continued till his death. Dayaram had four sons: (1) Thakurdás, (2) Mittar Sain, (3) Charan Singh, and (4) Lachman Singh. After Dayaram's death the jagir was confiscated, and his two sons, Thakur Das and Charan Singh, got respectable posts in the Bharatpur Raj, and Charn Singh's daughter was married to Balwant Singh, the Raja of Bharatpur; and the sons of the four brothers got high posts in the Ráj. The principal of them were Ratan Singh, sun of Charan Singh; Gopal

Families.

Chapter III, E. Village Communities and Tenures.

Singh, son of Mittar Sain, and Baldeo Singh, son of Lachman Singh. Luchman Singh, the father of Baldeo Singh, enlisted in the Indian Army as resaldar in the first Afghan campaign, and after his return from Kábúl remained in the army. During the Mutiny Luchman Singh was in the British forces before Delhi. His son Baldeo Singh and two nephews, Ratan Singh and Gopal Singh, did good service to the British Officers in Bharatpur, for which they got a jágír. Baldeo Singh got Kharkhari rúnd in Delhi district; Ratan Singh and Gopal Singh got the villages Alta and Sáwar in Bulandshahr district; Baldeo Singh, the present head of the family, resides in Mitraun and is a landed proprietor.

SECTION E.—VILLAGE COMMUNITIES AND TENURES.

Village tenures.

Table No. XV shows the number of villages held in the various forms of tenure as returned in quinquennial Table No. XXXIII of the Administration Report for 1878-79. But the accuracy of the figures is more than doubtful. It is in many cases simply impossible to class a village satisfactorily under any one of the ordinarily recognised tenures; the primary division of rights between the main sub-divisions of the village following one form, while the interior distribution among the several proprietors of each of these sub-divisions follows another form which itself often varies from one sub-division to another. The following figures show the classification adopted at the recent Settlement:—

Statement of Tenures.

•	TENURES.							
Tansil.		Zamiedabi. P.			PATTIDARI.		CHIEL.	
		Land- lord.	Commu- nal.	Pure.	Mixed.	Pure.	Mixed.	
Ballabgath Delki Sunipat	***	15 9 2	29 35 6	8 13 4	130 147 37	2 2 	99 82 120	
Total of the District	•••	26	70	25	31,4	4	371	

The terms 'perfect' and 'imperfect,' or, as they are sometimes used 'pure' and 'mixed,' deal with the degree of separation only, not with the degree of thoroughness or uniformity of the principle governing that separation; so that the classification does not tell as much as could be wished. No difference for example is marked by it between the thorough going pattidári village, and a village in which, though its primary divisions of tarafs, pattis or pánás are based on ancestral shares, the individual proprietors of each patti among themselves hold by bháyachára. i.e., base their tenure on possession. Yet such a difference seems quite as important as the fact of there being, or not being, common land undivided,

A further sub-division of puttidari villages as follows may therefore Chapter III, E. be added.:-

1.—Thoroughpoing, i.e., as between taraft, and in the taraft, 189 ne between proprietors, also pattidari 2 .- As to primary divisions pattiduri : and within those divisions bláyachára (vulgo pattládri bláyachára) ... 3.—As to primary divisions páttládri; within those divisions 147 cardadori bilijmil Total 833 Village Communi ties and Tenures.

Village Tenures.

The 26 zaminddri wdhid villages are distributed as follows:in Delhi 9; in Sanipat 2; in Ballabgarh 15. Of the nine Delhi villages, four belong to Government, Andhauli, Knithwari, Khaudrat Kalan and Shakarjar, but the last-named has disappeared under the diluvion of the river. The others are Hamidpur, Khanpur, Kuraini, Khor Punjah, and Sikandarpur. In Sunipat, the two villages are Harsana Kalan and Bahalgarh. In Ballabgarh, Government owns four entire villages. Sagarpar, Silif, Shikargah Tilori, and Yahvanagar, and the eleven others are Tajpur, Karahera, Majhaolí, Ballalgarh, Daulatábád, Sahopura, Maujpur, Bagh-Ghálib, Tilori Bangar. Chirsi and Chandaoli. The last three have been recently purchased by the family of Amjad Ali of Faridabad, as is noted under the section dealing with Government property. Not one of these villages is held by Muhammadan donces from the Delhi emperors. The title in each case is very recent, and indeed rarely is any right found going further back than the Mutiny, and not a few represent gifts from Government for services done at that critical time.

Riparian custom.

As the river runs down on one side of the whole length of the district, the yearly di-alluvion work forms an important feature of the revenue administration. The Jamua, however, is not nearly so violent or capricions as the Panjab rivers generally speaking are, and its incursions are rarely sudden or unforeseen. There are altogether 92 villages in the district at present bordering on the stream; 24 in Sunipat; in Delhi 24; and in Ballabgarh 44. The boundary for revenue purposes throughout is the deep stream of the river, but for proprietary right the custom is various. In Sunipat for all the 24 villages, the deep stream determines the property (machha shi); in Delhi only seven use this rule; in the remaining 17 villages, the proprietor keeps his land whether on this side the stream or not (mu'aiyan-ul-hadd). In Ballabgarh, nine follow the deep stream; and 35 the fixed boundary. In only two cases is it the practice in such eircumstances for the community to compensate the proprietor by the gift of village common land. In one the pecuniary loss of having to pay the revenue is borne by the village. In one the proprietor gets in compensation land (if any) recovered from the river. In six the unfortunate is given leave to cultivate the common land

Table No. XV shows the number of proprietors or shareholders Proprietary tenures. and the gross area held in property under each of the main forms of e nure, and also gives details for large estates, and for Government grants and similar tenures. The figures are taken from the quinquen-

Chapter III, E.

Village Communities and Tenures.

nial table prepared for the Administration Report of 1878-79. The accuracy of the figures is, however, exceedingly doubtful; indeed, land tenures assume so many and such complex forms in the Panjab that it is impossible to classify them successfully under a few general headings.

Besidesthe ordinary proprietary right, as represented by the right

Superior proprietors.

to engage for the Government revenue, there are in six villages in Ballabgarh superior proprietors, who take a percentage on the revenue paid by the biswahdars, but exercise for the most part no other right in the property. These villages are Phaphundah, Digh, Tajupur, Ajraunda, Alipur and Sadpura, and the percentages paid in them to the superior proprietors (ála málikán) are diverse, varying in amount from 5 per cent. to 10 per cent. Full particulars will

be found in a statement embodied in Mr. Maconachie's report.

Tenants and rent.

Table No. XVI shows the number of tenancy holdings and the gross area held under each of the main forms of tenancy as they stood in 1878-79, while Table No. XXI gives the current rent-rates of various kinds of land as returned in 1881-82. But the accuracy of both sets of figures is probably doubtful; indeed, it is impossible to state general rent-rates which shall even approximately represent the letting value of land throughout a whole district.

Extent of land cultivated by tenants.

the letting value of land throughout a whole district. The land held in cultivation by tenants throughout the district is 179,992 acres, or 34.67 of the whole cultivation. This leaves 339,425 acres, or 65:33 per cent. for the personal or khud-kúsht tenure of the proprietors. This average proportion, however, is not sustained in some parts, and indeed depends much on caste and traditional habit Where there are tenants with right of occupancy, of course the facts are rendered obscure, as referring to a state of things perhaps long ago, or modified by adventitious influences that we cannot accurately estimate. But the proportion of land held by tenants-at-will is more significant, and shows in several ways how the close proprietorship of the land works. Here will be found a small body of proprietors not apparently possessing the physical vitality to multiply sufficiently to furnish cultivating proprietors for the whole cultivated area of the village: there, perhaps in the very next village, the robust virility of the proprietary stock asserts itself by affording (non-resident) tenants all round to the neighbouring náhi-kásht estates. So long has this been going on that not unfrequently the proprietors of one village are tenants with right of occupancy in another. The Jatis largely khud-kásht, touse a convenient abbreviation of expression; his strong working hands are loth to let go any of his holding; while the Muhammadan, especially the Sheikh, is willing to eat a little less and let his muscles lie at rest. This is one of the principal causes of the considerable variation in the proportions held by proprietor and tenant respectively in different parts Near Delhi, this proportion is often a of the village cultivation: while, in some Jat villages of the more prosperous and healthy kind, the whole area is in the hands of the owners with the exception of a few acres.

The principal facts regarding the rent and cultivation of land in the district, as ascertained at the recent Settlement are given

on the next page.

		Ballangarii.		Dalet.		UNIPAT.		Totle.	
		No. of holdings.	Area.	No. of holdings.	Ares.	No. of holdings.	Area.	No. of holdings.	Arca.
Decupancy Cash tenants, lieut Tenants- Cash al-will, lieut	in kind rent	5,119 2 8,260 163	28,482 13 29,995 1,019	400 10,822	33,302		9,270 45 49,097 3,402	12,173 475 39,769 2,613	1,867
Total of tenants ; Total of tenants ;		13,395 165	57,477 1,061		51,047 8,093	22,951 1,013	67,967 3,447	50,013 820,6	1,66,491 13,501
Total of tenants of Percentage of t		13,550	58,638	16,513	60,01 0	23,067	61,414	51,030	1,79,992
area held by ter	ants	5,950	\$7·1 21,779	9,570	31·7 30,11·1	18,561	32·6 39,501	33,890	34·67 91,397
At revenue rates malikana		4,749	23,403	125	074	61	300	4,935	24,677
At a cons	•	2,677	12,295		19,959 *3,244	4,520	18,163	12,114 •733	5,417 •3,274
Role per málikán	cent of Highest		Rs. 700		R1,525				1,525
recen			3/s		3/				2/9
At a consolidated (chakula) Rate per cent of midikand on recenue. Share of grain laken by proprie.	(1/2	62	GS9	26	101	6	16	114	808
		2	120	869	1,439	282	1,171	673	2,730
Share of laken by p	deduc-4 1/3	GO	213	1,439	7,176	719	2,185	2,318	9,600
la lors ofter fies		1	10	37	131	б	76	41	21
i i	1/3		***	39	116	,		39	14

Chapter III, E. Village Communities and Tenures, Extent of land cultivated by tenants.

· These figures indicate tenants paying rent per ligha.

The question of right of occupancy for the tenant is an important Occupancy right, one in this district, and it is rendered somewhat more difficult by the historical fact of the transfer of this part of the country to the Punjab in 1857. Mr. Maconachie, the Settlement Officer, writes:-

"It may be well to record my experience gained in the Settlement, that the people themselves never had here any clear and definite idea of a right of occupancy on the part of any tenant. I wish, and most earnestly urge, that it should not be presumed, because the district was subject to the Revenue Board at Allahabad, that the 12 years' rule as it is commonly called should hold good. The question should, in the absence of specific law, be treated as one of local custom, and each case decided on its merits with reference to this. It is easy to show that the hard and fast application of the 12 years' rule would land us in difficulties. There is no reason why on this principle right of occupancy should be given to those, or acknowledged in those only who have held the land in question for 12 years previous to the mutiny. If the 12 years' rule was binding in the Delhi territory before the mutiny, I can see no reason why it should not be held as binding between 1857 and 1868, i.e., between the date of the mutiny and consequent transfer of Delhi to the Punjab, and the passing of the Punjab Tenancy Act. It would, therefore, include all those in possession for 12 years previous to 1868, which is pretty much the same as saying that all persons who have cultivated since the mutiny are occupancy tenants. I do not hesitate to say that this conclusion, if practically adopted, would un strongly against the local ideas of tenant right, even those of the enants themselves; as very few would be unscrupulous enough to assert

Chapter III, E.

Village Communities and Tenures.
Occupancy rights.

or prejudiced enough even to think, such a title sufficient to give the right of occupancy. Such a conclusion would also in a very material degree stultify the laborious enquiry recently made into the status of tenants in the Government villages in Ballabgarh, as the gift of occupancy right was there limited (and as I think with sufficient indulgence) to those who had been cultivating 12 years before the mutiny. This rule which has of itself determined the large majority of these cases on Government estates, was adopted after careful discussion, and was intended to be something more liberal than actual law required."

Occupancy Tenants' holdings.

The size of the holdings of this class of tenants is smaller in Sunipat than in Delhi, and in Delhi than Ballabgarh, and though the average difference is not much, the aggregate is very considerable; so that Ballabgarh, which has a cultivated area of only 158,151 acres, as against 188,134 in Sunipat, shows 28,494 acres as held with right of occupancy as against 9,315 only in the northern tahsil. Delhi with a cultivated area of 172,810 has 17,685 acres. The reason of this larger proportion in Ballabgarh is found in the liberal treatment by Government of tenants in the villages confiscated from the Rájá of Ballabgarh, and this perhaps may also account for the larger average of area. The number of occupancy tenants who pay in kind is very small; indeed, except in Delhi, they hardly exist at all; and in many parts it is an argument put forward in litigation against a tenant's claim to the right of occupancy that he pays in kind, and this is said without any reference to the Tenancy Act. The immense majority of the class pay at revenue rates of the village, except when the rent has been raised by judicial decree, and this is not often the case.

Tenants-at-will.

Tenants-at-will also very often pay at revenue rates, in fact, from a reference to the figures of the foregoing statement, it will be evident that there must be at least 20,000 holdings paying nothing more than this. In other words, with regard to some 7 per cent. of the whole cultivated area of the district, the social economy so arranges itself that a proprietor gets no return from his land; and does not find it to his advantage to evict a tenant who pays only the Government revenue. This is suggestive as to the stage of competition reached by the community, and the degree in which rigid political economy can be considered applicable to it. There is no great difference in the size of holdings of tenants-at-will as compared with those of occupancy tenants, though in each tahsil they are slightly smaller.

Rent rates,

The commonest form of rent* paid by tenants-at-will, when it is something more than mere revenue, is a lump sum for the holding, called chakotá. This, though generally lower than what might be thought a full rent, often reaches a considerable figure, especially in valuable lands near towns, and in a lesser degree in the largest villages. In such places social attrition is greater, and the bonds of custom are in this respect looser than in the more secluded parts. Other modes found less commonly are, by revenue rates plus máli-káná (or landlord's fees) at so much per cent. on the revenue, or by a

^{*} Zabti rates are not common; though they are taken sometimes for sugarcare, and other high crops. But they are not important, and the rates given in the table are of doubtful accuracy.

lump sum per bigha (bighers), which then without reference to per- Chapter III, E. centages includes the revenue. Thus in not a few villages a rupee Village Communithe kacha bigha is taken on all land cultivated by the fenant, a ties and Tenures. pretty good sum on a large extent of land. Nothing is more interesting in the agricultural system of the district than to watch the slow, unconscious, and so to say half-blind way in which the relations of landlord and tonant are adjusting themselves in accordance with the progress and development of the country, the comparative increase of intelligence among even the zamindars, and the general rise in prices which is so important a feature of agricultural history of the past twenty years.

Rent in kind is far oftenest & of the produce, and this after the kamins or village menials have taken away their dues. Next to 1. 4 (panjelé) is the most common proportion. A kind of natural county gives the lower rate of 1 on land newly broken up, or even less than this. One-half is very rarely taken. Near Sunipat may be noticed a very interesting compromise between the equity of sharing the produce, and the convenience of taking in cash. This is called locally ijárá, and may be defined as a provulnation in grain. Thus every field held by the tonant is estimated according to its known capacity, and on it a quantity of grain is fixed as rent. It differs radically from bathi in that it is known and fixed, and thus gives no occasion for the hickering disputes that so often rise at the division of the crop. It also differs of course from zabli in not being cash. The grain rent is generally, but not necessarily, the crops grown in the current season.

Taktfl. De'hl Sunipat Fallahgarh

The figures in the margin show the munber of village officers in the several tabsils of the district. head-quarters of the zails, together with the leading tribes in each, are shown on the next page.

The zaildári system was first introduced at the recent Settlement. It was strongly opposed by the local officers on the ground that no natural leaders existed among the people, and that to select and put into authority over the rest any one from among equals would breed ill-feeling and bad blood. But the Government overruled these objections, and directed that as far as practicable "representative men" should be "raised up by methods, consistent with the social phase of the population," and care should be "taken to connect the zaildárs with such popular institutions as may exist or may survive, such as tribes which have not lost their cohesion or tappas of the chracter to be found in Karnál."

With reference to the objections raised by his predecessor in the Settlement as to the unpopularity of the appointments, Mr. Maconachie writes :-

"It is satisfactory to be able to note that most if not all of this seems to have been occasioned by the fear that a new tax was to be imposed for the remuneration of the zaildars. There remains perhaps an uneasy feeling that a new hakim has been appointed, which in the popular mind involves the danger of new trouble; but on the whole it may be said that

Rent rates.

Rent in kind.

Village officers.

Zuildárs.

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there is now her strong head feeling against the system on the part there is now he strong near teeting nearly the system on the part of the mass, while known the there intelligent saminfacts the object and scope of the receive and several masters are nearly and the masters are nearly and the second and the part of the part of the object and scope of the receive and several and the second and the part of th the representations are understood, and to a very fair extent approximate the representations are understood, and to a very fair extent approximate A good dock of excited feeling doubtless has been raised, and possibly old another of the feeling doubtless has recived to far as the interchange quartely or the remembrances of them have recived to far as the interchange quartely of the remembrances of them have revived so far as the interchange good of an energy residualities of the democritic and misfortness of concents quarrers or the remembrances of them have revived so far as the interenance goes of an energy becapitulation of the dements and misfortunes of opponents in the candidature. But this source and more in smaller handless. poor or an enery recapitulation of the demerits and misfortines of opponents the in the candidature. But this seems epheneral and in reality harmless; the in the candidature. But this seems epheneral and in reality harmless; the in the candidature. In this people to acquiesce in any established order of natural inclination of the people to acquiesce. things will almost certainly assert itself, and matters will become as they Chapter III, E. were, with a considerable gain to Government of a body of men, the most influential and the most intelligent of the agricultural class, attached in a Villago Communiconvenient and elastic way to Government service, and bound to render ties and Tenures. cortain important revenue and social duties in consideration of what is to Government a very triding payment, but to them a valuable honorarium."

Zaildárs.

With regard to the homogeneity of the zails, of which a list is given above at page 88, the Delhi District, though there are perhaps no very strongly marked tappus, has certainly several sets of villages which "hang together," and have to a certain degree a feeling of kinsmanship. Among these may be mentioned the Jats, who have several well defined centres of local cohesion. There is the large got or clan of the "Antals" in Sunipat Khadar, and in the Bangar there are two great divisions, Dahiyas and Ahulanas. The Tak Seroas again come in round about Rathdhaneh. In Dolhi taked the ties are not so apparent, but local enquiry shows minor differences which are worth considering. In Ballabgarh there is a Gujar division both near Mahrauli and Tigaon, all Hindús. Sunipat there are Muhammadan Gujars also. Down in the southwest corner are a colony of Meos who have pushed up from Mewait, Alongside of these larger divisions are smaller sets of villages, many consisting of only four or five, some of two or three; and if a candidate seemes the suffrages of such a small community, he sometimes lays claim to be considered a popular leader. The number of zails in the district is 44 in all. The total amount of the inams which have been fixed as a deduction of one per cent. from the revenue, is Rs. 8,473, which gives an average of nearly Rs. 193 for each zaildar This is deducted from the amounted jama.

Ald lambarders or chief headmen, were first appointed at different times during 1878 and 1879. The same controversy was raised on this question as on the zaildar appointments, and settled in the same way. Government held that the advantages outweighed the objections, which appeared likely to be only in a small degree real. As a partial compromise, however, it was directed that alá lambardárs should be appointed only in villages where there were three or more headmen. The one per cent, allowed for their remnneration was, as with the zaildár ináms, to be a deduction from the jama announced. Appointments were made in 349 villages, and the average emolument for each is Rs. 16-7. Other particulars may be gathered from the statement at the top of next page. They represent the body of headmen, and receive Government orders in the first instance, though as regards the collection of the revenue they possess no special authority or responsibility. In addition to their one per cent, as chief headmen, they have as headmen of their own villages, five per cent. of the revenue for which they are responsible.

The number of headmen has been stated at page 87. Village headmen. Two points are worthy of note-first that at the recent Settlement women were sometimes found in possession of the office; and, secondly, that in several cases lambardárs have been appointed out of the cultivating and not the proprietary body.

Chief headmen.

apter	III,	E.
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llage Communies and Tenures. Ohief headmen.

0		CHAP. I	II.—THE	No. of VILLAGE	etrict.	
•	Statem	ent of Ala	Hamosi sa			To I
	Tansil.	No. of villages in the tabsil. No. of villages in which Als-Lam- No. of villages in which appointed, bardars have been appointed.	Jama of villages in which Ala-Lism- bardars have been appointed. Bardars have to Ala-Lambardars at one	villages with three Lambar dairs in each.	Villages w dars in e	Villages with more then (Thubarbirs in each.
	Dolhi Bunipat Ballabgarli		H. 107 1,70,120 141 2,06,312 06 1,34,943 340 6,71,381	R. 1,708 38 44 1,365 37 119	82 15 44 22 38 10 114 47	33 33 13 1 23 1 23 1 23 1 23 1 23 1 23

Village headmen.

occurred in two ways: Firstly, in certain cases at the Regular Settlement of 1842 villages were Ballabgarlı farmed to eultivators in the village, the proprietary body not taking up the villages at the rates then offered: when the next Settlement took place in 1872-80 these farmers reverted to eultivators, but were still allowed to hold their office. Secondly, in the ease of villages that had be come in one way or another property of Government, there being no property of Government, there being no property of Government, there and not them prietors, Government fixed on certain cultivators, and put them on the same footing as lambardars in villages owned by the zamíndárs. The pachotra or headman's dues, which is a cess of five per cent. in addition to the revenue, varies greatly in different villages, the largest in this district being Rs. The average remuneration for a smallest P 10 in Arazi Sahamur The average remuneration for a smallest P. 10 in Arazi Sabapur.

Village Watchmen.

Chankidars are employed in the usual way throughout the Their total number is 908, giving an average of 1.12 men village headman is Rs. 18-10-11. per village. The largest number is found in Narela and Mahrauli, which enjoy the privilege of having 11 chankidárs each. The distribution among the foliable is 201 Rellahearh . 201 Delhi. 21 Suninat. bution among the talkils is 301, Ballabgarh; 294 Delhi; 31 Sunipat.

There are 44 villages which are not his anough to granest a chanking There are 44 villages which are not big enough to support a charking dar alone by the resilves to their mende work for other willness also dár alone by themselves, so their men do work for other villages also.

Other facts are given below:-

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which, with the 44 above noted, make up the 810 of the district.
The most provident against a starting and the starting and t The most prevalent castes among the chaukidárs are Shaikhs. 133: Fakirs 97: Bráhmins 96: Chúras 84: Patháns 78: Gújars 71: the Chapter III, E. number of Shaikhs, Fakirs, Churas and Pathans are thus greatly disproportionate to the Census numbers of these tribes among the general ties and Tenures. population of the district. The average pay per annum is in Ballabgarh Village watchmen. Rs. 26-10-6, in Delhi Rs. 34-7-6 and in Sunipat Rs. 34-4-2. In some places they obtain also gifts at weddings, but this kind of perquisite is dropping out of fashion as not consistent with the social status In Delhi and engendered and fostered by the spirit of the times. Sunipat the bách is always levied by a uniform rate on families throughout the village, excepting the widow, the needy, and the churd. In Ballabgarh there is more variety: 195 villages follow the uniform rate; in four the proprietors pay more than the nonproprietors; in four it is the other way; in two it follows the revenue bách; in two more it is levied on the cultivated area; in four it is levied according to the means of the payer; while in six the banyás have to pay more than camindars, and in one village five sers grain Three are provided for by Municipal Comare taken per house. mittees; eleven are too small to deserve the dignity of chaukidars; and fifty-three have no ábádís.

A system of agricultural partnership exists in the district under Agricultural partwhich several land-owners club together, cultivate their joint land with their joint resources in the way of cattle and men, and divide the produce and pay the revenue in proportion to the labour, animal or human, contributed by each, without reference to the areas owned respectively. The same principle is extended in part to landless labourers, who join in the cultivation on condition of receiving a share of the produce (excluding fodder) and paying the same share of the revenue. These men do much of the hardest work. The partners in both cases are called sájis or sharers, the one without land being distinguished as a ji ka sáji or sharer of his body. His ordinary share is from a fourth to fifth of the produce

of one plough.

When a labourer takes fixed payment, he is called a kamera. He may be either an agricultural labourer pure and simple, paid by the day, month, or year, (see page 92 below) or he may receive a small share of the produce in addition to fixed wages. At Ganaur, a large village of Tagahs, the kameras receive one-fourth of the produce or one-third, according as the proprietor or his family assists or not in the cultivation. The proprietor supplies the seed, bullocks, and gives the kamera one roti daily, a pair of shoes and a few clothes, besides a share of the produce. The kamera pays one-quarter or one-third of the revenue. When wages are paid in cash the usual amount is Rs. 24 with one roti daily, shoes and clothes. .

The village menials or kamins are the following:—

Chamárs. Chúhras. Khátis. Lohárs. Kumhárs.

Dhobis. Sakkas. Jhiuwars or Kahárs.

Chamárs make shoes, weave cloth, and work as agricultural labour-Those who work in the fields receive one-twentieth share of the produce, and one or two rotis daily on the days they work.

nerships.

Kameras.

Village menials.

Village Communities and Termes.

Village merials.

Chapter III, E. have also a right to the skin and carcases of animals dving in the village. They give one-eighth share of the careass to the Chahras.

Chihras collect manure, and sweep the houses of the villages. Each has from ten to twenty houses under his charge. They receive one roti daily from each house, and a few excess of grain at harvest

Khátis make ploughs and all farm implements required by the villagers. They receive 20 seers grain at each harvest per plough.

Lohars make the iron work of ploughs, and also iron tools, such as khurpis, gandásiks, &c. Like the Khátis they receive bali a maund of grain per plough each harvest.

Kumhers make earthen jars, vessels, &c., for which they receive

payment in grain. Their remaneration is not fixed.

Note do barber's work and also act as agents at betrothels and marriages. For barber's work they receive one roti. They have no fixed remaneration, but they receive from Rs. 4 to Rs. 20 st marriages. The father of the bridegroom gives his not Rs. 4, and from Rs. 8 to Rs. 20 to the Nai of the bride's father.

Dhobis do the village washing. They receive five seas of grain

each harvest, also one roti when they wash clothes. Suldas, Jhingars or Kohins are water-carriers. They receive

five sears of grain each harvest.

Accident Library,

The subject of the employment of field labour other than that of the proprietors or tenants themselves, and the system of agricultural partnerships, are thus noticed in answers furnished by the District Officer, and inserted in the Famine Report of 1879 (1932)

"It is customary for the agriculturists to employ field laboures for (I) ploughing: (2) meeting: (3) granting the riceting cope: (4) cattle them when size. They are generally said in money, so a man two anise, a woman 1; sons, a chili of 12 to 15, one anna, excepting harves time. when they are poil in grain of about the same value. Simetime a min gets Rs. 2 a month, and his food for ploughing or guarding the cape. The persons usually so employed are of the Chamár, Koli, Agai, Dhárab, Lode, and Sweeper cases, who have most of them no other means of sustenance than felilabour. Some of them make above, made harness, weare cloth, and otherwise supply the mante of the village for the tion, but they are almost wholly dependent on what they receive from the cultivators as wages for field labour. Very few inhabitants of the city of Dolli work in the field. The number of persons so employed may be put at about three per cent. on the total population, or five per cent. on the population out-Side the town of Delki. Such held labourers are not so indebted as the poorer cultivating proprietors, for they carrot easily borrow money, and for the some recessir ibeir sufeisiense beimeen harreus in orenge years is inste presenters. They do not generally get advances from the village trailers. nor do they live long on grain or money previously earned, though that does herp them going for some time after the harrest; they work as the preparations for the next harrest, or get an advance from the calcitator who reprelarly employs than."

The mages of labour prevailing at different periods are shown . in Table No. XXVII, though the figures refer to the labour market of towns rather than to that of villages.

Patty rillign grantens

The last two lines of Table No. XVI show the number of persens helding service grants from the village, and the area so field

But the figures refer only to land held free of revenue, which is by no means the only form which these grants assume. Sometimes the land is leased to the grantee at a favourable rent, or on condition of Village Communipayment of revenue only; sometimes the owner cultivates and pays ties and Tenures. the revenue, making over the produce to the grantee; while occasionally the grant consists of the rights of property in the land, which, subject to the usual incidents, such as responsibility for revenue and the like, vest in the person performing certain specified services at such time and for so long as he performs them. These grants are most commonly made to village menials and watchmen on eondition of, or in payment for, services rendered, to attendants at temples, mosques, shrines, or village rest-houses so long as they perform the duties of the post, and for maintenance of monasteries, holy men, teachers at religious schools, and the like.

These grants are known by the names dolli and bhondah; which are sometimes confounded, but should not be so, as they are really different in a material point. The dolli is a grant of land for cultivation made in return for religious services, such as attendance at a shrine, or giving water at a well, provided it be done by a Bráhmin, fakir, or other holy person. A bhondah, on the other hand, is a grant of inferior degree, to persons of inferior degree, in return for ordinary menial services, and has no connection with religion: the bhondadár is generally a chamár, carpenter, bheestie or the like. If he does not do what is expected of him he is deprived of the bhondáh land. A dohlídár, on the other hand, is not under this control. If he himself goes away, giving up the land, then it may be given to some one else, but not otherwise; although the idea of surrendering altogether the proprietary title is never entertained. This kind of village grant is a kind of muafi held from camindárs. The dohli is generally smaller than the bhondah, though neither is found over ten bighas in extent; the total extent of land held in dohli* and bhondáh is given below:

Tansil.		Doult.			BHONDAH.			
		No. of villages	Holdings.	Bighas.	No. of villsges.	Holdings.	Bighas,	
Delhi Ballabgarh Sunipat	400 400	175 70 150	1,005 186 1,199	1,017 397 1,614	1 110 28	1 279 58	3 976 107	
District	•••	395	2,390	3,028	189	338	1,086	

Another characteristic incident of land tenure in the district is Wood preserves. the reservation of wood-producing land in the shamilat deh as an enclosure whence no fuel or wood is to be cut. This is generally connected with religion in the shape of a fakir's hut, or grave or a religious shrine; but sometimes no such religious element is observable, and in such cases the practice is probably due to the love of shady trees which not unnaturally is possessed strongly by the

Chapter III, E.

^{*} The derivation of the name doll' is said with some plausibility to be dohal!
—two turns or furrows of the plough made over thus to religious use. Bhondak is written in books sometimes bhonda with a long 'a' at the end, but the silent 'h' is the more correct.

Village Communities and Tenures. Wood preserves.

Chapter III, E.

zamindár. In these rakhyás, as they are called (perhaps from rakhná to hold, or keep), the prohibition against cutting or using the wood is no mere form of words. As a rule indeed the people, with that faculty of docile obedience which is at once such a help and a trouble (when it degenerates, as so often is the case, into slavish adherence to custom) to the administrator, observe the social precept without asking more about it. But if a man transgresses by cutting the wood, he is fined at different sums, generally twice the value of the wood. If he does not pay, he is put out of caste, but, as a fact, the villagers say a fine is always paid without Money thus obtained is spent in charity. There are fortysix villages at least which thus preserve trees never to be cut. The common preservation of land for timber-growing (the timber being cut at regular intervals) may be noticed here, though it is more an incident of the management than of the tenure of land. In ninety villages this is done: the trees are generally kikar or van or dhák and are cut at intervals of about five years. In some places the income thus derived is very considerable.

Bights in the village site,

The abadi, or village site is generally held in common, but the ground of each proprietor's house practically belongs to him. As regards the important point of the rights of non-proprietors, which marks almost more than anything else the degree of development of the village into a town, the practice is diverse. In 20 villages it is said (perhaps doubtfully) that non-proprietors can sell their houses with the land on which they are built; in 589 villages they may sell the materials (malba) but not the site; and in 56 they can dispose of neither. In 13 cases it was found at attestation of the Administration Paper that the matter was in dispute: in eight villages no non-proprietors had houses. In one village, Bhaskaula in Ballabgarh, there is the curious compromise that those persons who, though not proprietors in the village itself, are proprietors in villages adjoining viz., Muazzimábád and Mohabatpur, may take away the malba but other non-proprietors may not. The remaining 123 villages have no abádí.* The 20 villages where non-proprietors are said to be entitled to sell the site of houses as well as the materials are thus distributed: Sunipat 14; Delhi 3; Ballabgarh 3. Some of the places are no doubt towns where one would expect to find the rule thus, e.g. Sunipat, Mahraulí, Farídábád and perhaps Bowána; but for little places like Kurainí, Sitaoli, Nawádah zer Najafgarh, and others, it is not easy to find an explanation.

Poverty or wealth of the proprietors.

Table No. XXXII gives statistics of sales and mortgages of land; Tables Nos. XXXIII and XXXIIIA show the operations of the Registration Department; and Table No. XXXIX the extent of civil litigation. But the statistics of transfers of land are exceedingly imperfect; the prices quoted are very generally fictitious; and any figures which we possess afford but little real indication of the economical position of the landholders of the district. The subject is discussed at some length at pages 332 ff of the Famine Report of

^{*} In Delhi 50, Ballabgarh 53; Sunipat 20; and of these so far as is known never inhabited. Delhi 17, Ballabgarh 16, and Sunipat 3. About 16 it is not known if they have ever had ábádás.

1879, where actual figures are given for instances selected as typical. In forwarding these figures, the Settlement Officer wrote as follows :--

Chapter III, E. Village Communities and Tenures.

" I pass on to the last matter on which report is required. The causes of indebtedness are not generally obscure; in order of importance they Poverty or wealth of may generally be put as follows :-

Expenses of marriages and funerals. (1.) Vicissitudes of season, as regards crops. Ill-luck with cattle, or personal illness.

(4.) Severity of Government revenue.

All these matters have often been dwelt on, and I am not likely to strike out any thing new. The question of sumptuary laws will probably be considered; perhaps too the idea of a rough assurance association to afford compensation in cases of death of cattle is not original. Both matters seem to me worthy of consideration. But I think it better to pass on to the last point, indebtedness caused by the severity of Government revenue. I think this uncommon, but I believe it exists, and more than anywhere else in the canal villages. Some of these have been paying Rs. 3 on every cultivated acre for the last 30 years. Now this may be horne in fair years, though it is a great burden, and forces on a system of cultivation which cannot but injure the land. But in bad years, or when water is scarce, or not given at the right time, the canal village is worse off than The canal irrigation, at the style in which it has been going on here for many years past, would, I believe, ruin any land in time. It is of no use to say that the people are to blame for flooding their land so; their reply is cogent; we must do so to sustain the heavy Government demand; inelasticity too of the canal water rent is against them, so that as a matter of fact, canal irrigation, which should be the most certain protection of a high average, and of that average from wide variations, often introduces an element of speculation into the matter, which would at first sight seem astonishing. The inference to be drawn seems to be that Government has not properly discharged its duties as joint trustee of the land with the camindars. If they have not discretion sufficient to prevent a far distant but surely coming destruction of the powers of the soil by a moderate uso of the immense power of irrigation from canals, that duty and that responsibility nevertheless remain with Government. The remedy is simple; allow only moderate irrigation, and assess accordingly; severity of revenue in other than canal villages is rarc. The Government demand is inelastic, and we have failed to teach the people, as yet, to prevent the strain in bad years by forethought and thrift in good seasons. But the adjustment is generally accomplished, though in a clumsy and costly manner. The money-lender gives help in bad seasons, and is repaid in good; the greater cost is found in his exorbitant interest. If we push this further, we find that the "middleman" class is numerous; that it is favoured by superior intelligence and social And this brings us to what perhaps is not the greatest cause of indebtedness, strictly speaking, but the greatest cause of increase of indebtedness, viz., the power of the bania and money-lender over the zamindar. The subject is a well worn one, and it seems unnecessary to do more than, having noted the distinction above, to record my assent to the general opinion. Twenty years ago the eanal villages were in the height of prosperity, pakka houses were built, the common funds of the proprietors often raised a substantial traveller's house used as a village assembly room (the chaupár or cha pál). The oxen, fed on sugar cane stalhs, gur, and the abundant fod-

^{*} The new revenue assessment has been framed with a view to improve matters in this respect.

CHAP III.—THE PEOPLE. der of canal-irrigated fields, increased in size and strength; the people therease adopted a more liventions et ale of living and dress. Ret this der of canal-irrigated neids, increused in Size and strength; the people themselves adopted a more luxurious style of living and dress. But this Village Community themselves adopted a more luxurous style of living and dress. Unt this the soil is cafeeled to the time. The people, however, the soil is cafeeled to the time. The people, however, and the consequence of the soil is capable to the time. The people, however, and in many places desiroyed, at least for the time. The people, and the consequence of the soil is capable to their primitive simplicity, and the consequence of the time. quence is that there is in the canal-irrigated district a far greater amount of had the old circumstances of exindebtedness than there would have been, the canal has been used, and not penditure been unaltered. Still, where the canal has been in the district penditure been unaltered.

The property not equalled anywhere in the district physical there is yet even a prognerity not equalled anywhere in the district physical there is yet even a prognerity not equalled. pennioure been unantered. Stant, where the canal has been used, and not abused, there is yet even a prosperity not equalled anywhere in the district.

The holding of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the canal proprietor is not ge abuseu, there is yet even a prosperity not equalled anywhere in the district.

The holding of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally size throughout the district, 12 to 13 acres; but he gets richer crops, especially engagene of the ground. ally sugarcane, off the ground. In a large canal village, it is not uncomthe proprietors. any sugarcane, on the ground. In a large cause vinage, 15 15 not uncommon to find a mass of cultivation of this crop, sometimes wall fanced in well fanced in mon to find a mass of cumvation of this crup, sometimes 30, 10 or 100 acres standing together, with regularly-marked narrow-lands, well fenced in, acres standing together, with regularly-marked narrow-lands, alike for seed. leading from one end to the other.

Sugarcane is expensive alike for seel,

Notice of the other planting, care while growing, and expressing when ripe.

the cost and is in fact the great stand by in those villages where it is grown the cost and is in fact the great stand by in those villages where it is grown the cost, and is in fact the great stand by in those villages where it is grown.

Sugarana is common shirthy in the Thirtie at all and in some villages in the Sugarcane is grown chiefly in the Khádir chak, and in some villages in the Ranger but nowhere done it come to each a size of in the constraint of the constr Bángar, but nowhere does it come to such a size as in the canal villages. gar, but nownere does it come to such a size as in the Galilly villages.

"The other chaks have proprietors for the most part in moderate and there the "The other chaks have proprietors for the most part in there the circumstances. The Kohi chak probably is the poorcst, and there are people arc sometimes very low in their standard of living. the thatch; the people arc sometimes very low in their standard support the thatch; sometimes mud walls support to chapter of thatch; sometimes mud walls are chaptered of the inferior grains, and the dress often is only a food consists mainly of the inferior grains, and the dress often is only a food consists mainly of the inferior grains. mere chappars of thaten; sometimes mud walls support the thaten; the food consists mainly of the inferior grains, and the dress often is only a rises of district coarse actton cloth in the form of a chidar. The general piece of dirty coarse cotton cloth in the form of a change. Line general average however is better than this. No. 1, it is true is in debt, but his average however is better than this. and it is because he has a large state of living in separathing like comfort, and it is because he has a large. piece of dirty coarse cotton cloth in the form of a chadar. average nowever is percer than this. NO. I, It is true is in debt, partial style of living is something like comfort, and it is because he has Had he for his moderate holding that he becomes embarrassed. style of fiving is something like comfort, and it is because ne has a large family for his moderate holding that he becomes embarrassed. A who fewer months to feed he might be as well off as the shrewd Jat No. 4. who fewer mouths to feed, he might be as well off as the shrewd Jat No. 4, who, in a holding of only caren agree has managed to care money and image rever mouths to reed, he might be as well our as the shrewd Jat No. 4, who, and knows in a holding of only seven acres, has managed to save money, and knows in a holding of only seven acres, though under a temporary cloud, His how to use it when saved. No. 9, though under a he probably pays his way. His nerhans get right again; in an ordinary year he probably pays his way. perhaps get right again; in an ordinary year hc probably pays his way.

house is not much certainly; but it is better than the manage to live.

were not for the cows of the latter. he would hardly manage to were not for the cows of the latter, he would hardly manage to live. not for the cows of the latter, he would narmy manage to live.

"The general condition then of the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition than the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the condition the condition that the condition that the condition th moderately prosperous; there is little margin for him to fall back on in said times, and his style of living is somewhat low; A marriage, a funeral with ordinary expenses. he generally pays his way. with ordinary expenses. he generally pays his way.

or bad luck with his cattle, may bring him into difficulties, but believe that may extricate himself from in many cases. There is reason to believe that legal fees are in a few instances the cause of embarrassment, if not of minlegal rees are in a rew instances the cause or embarrassment, it not or running the tenants with occupancy rights, and still more the tenants in circumstant tenants with occupancy rights, and still more the inferior in circumstant perhaps he emboded as heing inferior in station, to be inferior in circumstant. Perhaps be supposed as being inferior in station, to be inferior with occupancy perhaps be supposed as being inferior in station, to be inferior with occupancy of the tenant with occupancy perhaps be supposed as being inferior in station, to be inferior with occupancy of the tenant of the te may extricate himself from in many cases. has sometimes (as in case No. 2) an auxiliary income from parohitai, priest not only to nav his way but save money. In the which enables him not only to nav his way but save money. has sometimes (as in case No. 2) an auxiliary income from paronnar, Pro-In Iv dues, which enables him not only to pay his way but save money. The ly dues, which enables him not only to pay his way but save money. The ly dues, which enables him not only to pay his way but save money. The ly dues, which enables him auxiliary income becomes most important. the case in question this auxiliary income becomes most important. number of such privileged persons is necessarily limited, Whether adventitious aid the tenant is often a man of substance.

The the present time he concerns the present time he can always and the tenant is often a man of substance. auvenumous and the tenant is often a man of substance. When he generally pass remain so is a matter of doubt. Up to the present time he generally pass remain so is a matter of doubt. On his land, i.e., he pass no rent; so only the revenue-rate of the village on his land. remain so is a matter of doubt. Up to the present time he generally pays no rent; so only the revenue-rate of the village on his land, i.e., he pays no rent; so only the revenue-rate of the village on his land, i.e., he pays no rent; so only the revenue-rate of the village on his land, i.e., he may be as well off as the protection of the village of size. He may be as well off as the pays that, provided his holding is of a fair size. only the revenue-rate of the village on his land, i.e., ne pays no rent; so that, provided his holding is of a fair size, he may be as well off as the protector of other land in the same village. There seems little doubt. provided as nothing is of a. Intrastile, no may be as well out as the provided prietor of other land in the same village. There seems little doubt, however, prietor of other land in the same village, announced a general attempt will be that when the new assessments shall be announced. prietor or other land in the same village. There seems little donot, novever, that when the new assessments shall be announced, a general attempt of rent, and on the part of the proprietors to obtain rent. or an enhancement of rent, made on the part of the proprietors. when the new assessments shall be announced, a general attempt will be made on the part of the proprietors to obtain rent, or an enhancement of the tenant and this must lessen the profits of the tenant. made on the part of the profits of the tenant. The position of the tenant and this must lessen the profits of the tenant.

will is every unequal. He, too, at present often pays only the revenue-rate, but Chapter III, E. on the other hand he sometimes has to give a competition rent. The pressure village Communistrong men, or having active women, may do well; but whenever the nonproducing part of the house becomes large, distress is sure to follow. The Poverty or wealth of Máli of Ráthdhanah (instance No. 3) gets together in one way or another a pretty large income, but the large quantity of food requisite to keep his seventeen people going makes it a hard matter to keep out of debt. Probably by the time the boys come to working age they will find their earnings embarrassed with considerable dobt. The limit, however, is not far off; when the money-lender ceases to give credit the house breaks up, and the men scatter to earn their living by hiring themselves out. The difference in status arising from advantages of irrigation is shown in instance No. 8, where a tenant-at-will on 17 acres contrives to pay a revenue of Rs. 62 odd, and Rs. 40 more water-rent. The revenue of course includes rent paid to the proprietor. With this heavy charge on him, he yet pays his way, and is on the whole in comfortable circumstances. This being so, it is no wonder that the proprietors expect to be well off, and are disappointed when they find their former prosperity gone."

ties and Tenures.

the proprietors.

CHAPTER IV.

PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION.

SECTION A.—AGRICULTURE AND LIVE-STOCK.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture and Live-Stock.

General statistics of agriculture.

Table No. XIV gives general figures for cultivation and irrigation, and for Government waste land; while the rainfall is shown in Tables Nos. III and IIIA and B. Table No. XVII shows statistics of Government estates and Table No. XVIII of Forests. Table No. XX gives the areas under the principal staples, and Table No. XXI the average yield of each. Statistics of live-stock will be found in Table No. XXII. Further statistics are given under their various headings in the subsequent paragraphs of this Chapter. Land tenures, tenants, and rent, the system of agricultural partnerships and the employment of field labour have already been noticed in Chapter III. The following table gives the areas as ascertained at the recent Settlement.

•	.	Mis	HAI,	Ct	LTURADL	n.		Colti	VATED.	* .
Tanest	TOTAL AREA.	Uncul- turable.	Unas- sessed.	Waste.	Lately aban- doned.	Gar- dens.	Well water- ed	Natur- ally moist	Unitri- gated.	Total of culti- vation.
Rallabgarh Delhi Sunipat	2,45,628 2,76,405 2,80,452	41,460	3,000 7,055 921	19,376 51,563 66,151	663 2,209 2,001	407 1,196 951	13,012 17,527 43,950	5,590 20,257 1,453	1,39,624 1,35,1°8 1,41,996	1,72,892
Total of the district		1,40,860	*11,909	1,36,069	4,873	2,657	75.339	27,300	4,16,728	5,19,417

^{* 8,932} cultivated-making total land actually cultivated 528,349.

The seasons. Rain-

The total annual fall of rain and the manner in which it is distributed throughout the year are shown in Tables III, IIIA, IIIB.

The rabi crop is called locally sidhi, the kharif, sawani. Land bearing two crops is called dofasli, but this means two full crops, such as wheat after cotton, while for land which bears a lighter crop after a full one, such as channa after jawar, there is another name, fansil. Land giving one crop a year is called badhwar.* Three crops in a year are very rare indeed in Delhi; they can be managed only by putting in a fast-growing crop like china, and the land requires rest after it. Two crops even are impossible without manuring. The comparative importance of the harvests varies in different parts, as a general rule, the Khadar mainly depends on its rabi crop, while the Bangar rain-lands naturally yield their revenue in the autumn harvest. And this point will indeed tell

^{*} The word was originally, Bhadwar—meaning the land depending on the Bhadon rains for its cultivation.

pretty well the proportion of the crop. The villagers have themselves within certain limits decided how much revenue shall be Agriculture and Live-Stock. paid on each crop, and this shows pretty plainly the relative importance of each. In Bangar well-lands the proportion is about half-

and-half, and the cannal lands are pretty much the same. The soil of the district is mainly alluvial, and is classified as Soils of the district raush, and bhur, which are described respectively as a clayey loam, a half sandy half clayey loam, and a sandy loam degenerating in its inferior state to mere sand. The zamindár distinguishes the three kinds according to their degrees of consistency: the dakar clods are hard and stiff, not easily broken; the rausli; while looking firm as a clod, should crumble in fine pieces when let fall from the hand to the earth; while bhur, as a rule, does not lie in clods at all. The productive qualities of the soils may be estimated from their description. Dákar is strong and fertile if it is well worked and its particles well separated, but it is generally too stiff for the comparatively light ploughs of the native agriculture, while its great retentiveness of moisture requires a favourable succession of wet and dry weather. Rausli is more easily worked, and is more porous; with less natural strength and forcing power, it is on the whole as good as dákar because it mixes better with manure, and allows the chemical action of the air freer scope. A light rausli, likes a brackish (mulmala) water-well; the zamindárs know this, though to a stranger they not unfrequently make the complaint, pání bil-kul khárá, (our water is altogether salt), as proving the want of productiveness in the soil. This is referred to further on with reference to irrigation.

The kind most commonly met with is rausli. In fact, dakar Distribution of soils. is hardly found except in drainage lines, or old beds of pools and ponds; while bhur, representing sand scarcely at all mixed with vegetable decayed matter is also rare: the proportion as found in the district cultivated area is, rausli 79 per cent., dákar 13 per There is a considerable difference in the cent., bhúr 8 per cent. various assessment circles in respect of the distribution of soils. Dákar soil is found extensively in low-lying lands where the passage of drainage water, either free or impeded, may be suspected. It is also formed in canal lands by the accumulated deposit of alluvial matter, which is brought down by the canal, and the layer of decayed vegetation which generally works into the ground year. by year. Rausli is the normal soil of the Bangar, and bhur represents the result of drainage washing away the lighter particles of soil or rock, so that it is not unnaturally found most largely in the Khádar near the river, or in the tracts immediately lying under the hills: the average of the assessment chuks as regards the distribution are given at the top of next page.

Table No. XXII shows the number of cattle, carts, and ploughs in each takest of the district as returned in 1878-79. The implements used by the zamindár are as follows: -The plough (hal), of which the wooden share is panyárá; the yoke for his oxen (iúá); sántá is the whip he urges them with when lazy or refractory; otherwise he does a great deal with the animal's own tail, which he twists and twirls in a manner which by its results would seem most significant.

Chapter IV, A.

how clussified.

Agricultural implements and appliances.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture and Live-Stock Distribution of soils.

		PRODUCTION AND BIRD	
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Onak. *Khádar- Bángar. Dáhrí o Dábar. Zerko	Boil. Dákar Rauslí Bhúr Dákar Rauslí Bhúr Dákar Rauslí Bhúr	BALLADUARIL DELIII. SUNIPAT.	1
Ko	Dákar Rauslí Bhúr	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	13 79 8
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gricultural implements and appliances.

nas pesides, hoe 17,527 ion country hoe 43,950 edges like a saw edges like a saw The reins he checks them with 75.399 he gandásah is a 2,209 2,001 (kuliárí), and the spade-hoe parcane, and a smaller (khurpa), and the small hand tool of the same kind is a gandal land actually ala, khodua, or rampra (dratri) with which he cuts m tool of the same kind is a gandau land actually ald, khodud, or rampra is a kind of spud with a thick half ain and hand, thrust downward. In a of action is the same as thresh tool used for hoeing, smaller is a khoduli; kasou, a same principle.

A smaller one is a khoduli is kasou, a same principle.

A smaller one is a khoduli is a kasou, the latter part of September 1 is a kasou, but working on the same principle.

Sowing for the rabi begins in Asaui the latter part of September 1 is a kasou, the latter part of September 2 is a known a kasou the latter part of September 2 is a known a kasou the latter part of September 2 is a known a kasou the latter part of September 2 is a known a kn

Sowing.

Sowing for the rabi begins in Asauj, the latter part of September, and continues will Mangsir has half gone, the beginning of December; the order of sowing is gram, barley, wheat. always sown with a rough drill (orlina) fastened on to the plough. This is merely a thick piece of bamboo, the upper end of which has been split into many clies and arrend out so as to form a kind of been split into many slips, and opened out so as to form a kind of trumper shape. It is strengthened with an iron ring put inside. (and) and bound with leather outside; the top part of the ordina is It is big enough at the mouth to let a man's full hand

[•] In Sunipat this is wholly Khadar: in the other two tahells the villages mostly contain both agar and Khadar soil. • In Sunipat this is wholly Khādar: in the other two tunsus two tunsus the other two tunsus t could dorle. 159,417.

in. The sower walks along with his chádar full of seed, and takes Chapter IV, A. out a handful with his right hand, and gives it to his left hand to drop down the orlina, the left hand remaining on the dorli, and guiding the plough.* Barley is sown with a drill or broadcast (Ballabgarh pabhér-Delhi pabhér and bakhér-in Sunipat bakhér and hinddo). Wheat is sown with a drill, and also broadcast, and in the northern part of the district in the furrow (khud) without the drill. Sowings for the kharif (except for sugarcane, of which the special treatment is described further on), begin in Chait with cotton and jowar for fodder. Then come bajra, the jowar intended to give a full crop, makái, urd, moth, múng, jowár, &c., &c. Makái and moth can be sown up to 15th Sáwan. Both modes of sowing are used; broadcast is however, preferred when the ground is well moistened as after good rains. When the land is dry the drill is more used.

The ordinary number of ploughings is for the kharif crops five and for the rabi, nine. The first ploughing is called par, the second dosar, the third tesar, the fourth chausar, and the fifth panchbahini; after this there is no special name till the ninth, when it is naubáhini; and this is enough. But sometimes for sugarcane more is done. The depth of ploughing is only six fingers breadth, and is often only three; this is of course merely scratching the ground. Seed is put in about three fingers breadth deep. Good ploughing is a pakka bighá per day; work goes on from early dawn to evening, with two hours rest in the middle of the day. But this of course is work in the Indian style, and allows for some half-dozen pulls at the liukkáh; four times before mid-day and twice afterwards. Some rest is necessary of course for the bullocks, and to make sure that their necks will not be galled by the yoke (jud). Well-work generally is very trying for the animals; the husbandman says it is as bad for them as gambling is for a man. The soldaga is used after ploughing, for levelling the ground, and breaking the clods (dalle, dhim). It is also called mahz. A little soldad, according to the usual way of making diminutives, is solágí, or malijí.

Propitious times (mahurat) are sought for ploughing, and certain days must be somewhat humoured. Thus on Monday and Saturday a prudent man will not plough with his face to the east. On Monday and Saturday the demon of the four quarters (Disá-Súl) remains in the east; his location is not so fixed during the rest of the week as to give rise to any other proverb; but a zamindár will not of his own accord go northward on Tuesday and Wednesday or westward on Friday and Sunday, and the south must be avoided on Thursday (Brihaspat.) These limitations are strictly observed.+ Wednesday is good for sowing and Tuesday for cutting the crop.

Agriculture and Live-Stock. Sowing.

Ploughing.

Lucky days.

^{*} Most of the guidance is done with the voice. Barrh turns the animal to the righ; to turn it to the left, it is necessary to say ah (the h very soft), and as the turn it always made from right to left, this is the cry at the end of each furrow. To stop them turning the man makes a noise with his lips (puchkart).

† Of course a hākim's order, such as a summons to court, must be obeyed, whether on a lucky or unlucky day. But the zamindār will explain his want of success in a suit by saying—"I went to the devil (Disā-Sūl) so I was bound to be unlucky,"

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture and Live-Stock. Harresting.

Crops are harvested by the zamindárs themselves, but they generally require the aid of hired labourers, so that in almost every village some of this class will be found. They are for the most part Chamárs, but sometimes Chúhrás. Mális generally cultivate on Brahmins often their own account, but at times work as labourers. go shares (sájhú or sánjhú) with the proprietor, furnishing one yoke of oxen to one of the owners. A Jat does this too when he is poor. The rates of pay for the kharif season are 2 annas per diem and a roti of 1 seer weight, but the bread given in is sometimes enough for a full meal. The owner calls on the men he wants for next day the evening before, and looks them up too in the early morn-Then they all go a-field together and begin work. gharis of the day have passed the basi meal is brought by the owner's boy or girl for all the men. After this work goes on again till noon, this for themselves unless it be a dear season for labour, when The work is again resumed, after a pull at the hukkah, and goes on in a quiet way till the proprietor will have to find it. sundown or after that, and then they all go home together. No one forces the labourers to stay, for no one is extremely auxious to go; they even take an interest in getting the crop cut and gathered in quickly. The general understanding is that the cutting goes on till sundown, and the collection of the sheaves after that. is given that evening or the day before. If payment is not made, the man is known and marked, and they laugh at him the next season.

In rábí the labourer mostly takes grain; he won't take cash. The rate is 4 seers, or more, reckoned by sheaves (púlis) which give cheated by very big sheaves being taken, the owner puts his own people to arrange the stock (kindra); the big sheaves are put down something less than a seer each. at the bottom, and so are safe. A man cuts about 1 pakká bighá i the day. The hired labourer eats three times a day, and there is not much inferiority in his diet to that of the land proprietor. has not the rank of the zamindár, but otherwise is happy.

Hoeing and weeding.

Hoeing and weeding (nalái) are considered good for all crops. but some need this more than others. Sugarcane is never satisfied in this way; cotton likes also much to be clean; while wheat will do with one good hoeing: also jowár, and bájrá. Pepper wants a great

Carting grain to the threshing floor.

The grain when cut is earted to the threshing-floor (pair; Pundeal, and tobacco the same. jabi, kahvara); a collection of these is called a khata. will generally see to his crop himself by sleeping there at night till it is threshed out, which he loses no time in doing.

Modes of storing grain.

Grain is either stored in kothás or rooms of the house, or in kothás threshing-floor and your enemy, deal quickly." in one of them, or in a large canvass bag theká which stands upright by the weight of the grain in it, and holds 50 or even 100 maunds. grain when thus stored (besides rats and mice of course if there are ny) are (1) sursali, (2) khaprá. (3) dhorá. Of these the dhorá is a winged insect with a little round body; if the khaprá is put into a granary where he is, he dies, not being able to abide the savour of the other! The khapra is a kind of weevil that confines his depredations to the top of the store, not going more than a span deep. The sursali is a kind of red ant; he is as bad as the dhord.

Manure is generally the dung of cows, buffaloes, or bullocks fastened up in the house. No zamindár hesitates to handle it; it would be most unreasonable, for dung and mud serve him instead of wall-papering. The ashes of cow-dung, pats, upla, and of any wood burnt—but not those of the khoi (canestraw refuse),—all come into use. The great enemy that prevents the supply of manure being much larger than it is, is the custom of burning such pats for fuel. All but the best families use their women in making them up. When made, they are placed inside a square enclosure called a hitaura. The pats are dried, put inside, and it is then built up solid, and then closed for future use. When the pats are needed, a hole is made in the side and they are taken out as wanted.

There is no custom of fallows in the district. The soil indeed Fallows and rotahas very little rest now-a-days, whether from the greed of the zamindar or from the acceleration which appears going on generally in the slow-paced oriental life. Land left unsown after one crop is reaped, during the succeeding season is called tupar; next year if it is still left so, it becomes banjar. Bahan is really the name for land after it is ploughed (báhná); when sown, it takes the name of its crop. Rotation of crops is partially practised, for the zamindár has his predilections and prejudices which may be taken as embodying the results of traditional experience about the succession of crops. Thus after wheat will come jowar, or cotton, or moth with advantage; after sugarcane, cotton, or jowar or urd; after cotton makkai is very good. The best rotation is given as follows: sugarcane, then cotton, then tobacco, then pepper, or makkai.

Delhi stands high in the list of Punjab districts as regards the Irrigation in Delhi. proportion of protected, i.e., irrigable area. The statistics given for the purposes of the Famine Commission,* place the percentage of such area as compared with the total cultivated land at 37, of which 15 may be taken as protected by wells, 4 by bands and irrigation from jhils, and 18 by canals. Some particular notice will now taken of each of these.

Some facts about wells in each chak are given at the top of the

next page.

There were in 1872-75, the years of Settlement measurements. in the whole district 8,841 working wells, viz., 4,797 in Sunipat, 2,256 in Delhi, 1,788 in Ballabgarh. This information, however, is not so precise as it looks, for wells, so called, are of four kinds, of very unequal degrees of efficiency in irrigation. There is first the ordinary masonry well,+ made of brick, or stone, and mortar, and

† Pakká kůa, golá, rékhtá.

Chapter IV, A. Agriculture and Live-Stock.

Manuro.

tion of crops.

Number of wells.

Kinds of wells,

^{*} See Volume I of Report, page 178.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture and Live Stock Amiter of neils.

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found chiefly in the circles near the hills where the richard of the circles near the hills where the richard of the circles near the hills where the richard of the circles near the hills where the richard of the circles near the hills where the richard of the circles near the hills where the richard of the circles near the hills where the richard of the circles near the hills where the richard of the circles near the hills where the richard of the circles near the hills where the richard of the circles near the hills where the richard of the circles near the hills where the richard of the circles near the hills where the richard of the circles near the hills where the richard of the circles near the circles ne renders the use of rough half-hearth stone terr cheap. The there are not very many places where this kind of construction answers. there is the moder well a well of which the sides are builting there is the moster well a well of which the Sees are the curred block pieces of wood like the Seemante of a calcimited. length raving from the content has the segments of a cartacle. son, and not one deep-suns, last for many years symmetric extension. They are found in Tany circles, but specially in caring solutions of the Knoder. generation. They are found in Trany circles, but specially in community of the Knizdan. Lower than these in the scale of entirely willings of the Knizdan. Lower than these in the scale of entirely and durability is the Jar-ka-kia. Sa mere hole durability is the Jar-ka-kia. Sa mere hole durability is the Jar-ka-kia. Sa mere hole durability and mith brushwood of various reasons and the second state of the scale of the second state. in the remove remains with present out of Tarons Index were sent in the country and in the country and make the course term cheap, and in these whose last out one the course term cheap, and in these whose last out one the course term cheap, and in these was a sent out of the course term cheap. course tert cheap, and in most places last only one, two, or there

^{*} These are the Sames of the sentement and the sentement of the sentement and and into leave block rises, because a small transmit gives of antiwhich is aimst to become a believe, school
which is aimst leave to become a believe, school
for another leave to the common single to the first graphs, and first graphs are fixed, although the formal single to the common single to the first graphs.

rėnić.

years, though in a firm, hard soil, they may last a little longer. depth to which they are sunk is of course small, the deepest not

exceeding twenty feet.

Besides these wells is the jhalar and the dhenkli; the former is found on the side of river streams and jhils, and is merely a variety of the Persian wheel with larger tindas (water pots); the latter is a simple but ingenious apparatus by which the water to be raised comes up in a vessel suspended from the long arm of a lever of the balance kind, and its weight is overcome by the weight of a block of hard earth or mud piled on the other end of the lever. The pole constituting the beam of the lever works up and down on a rude wooden fulcrum placed in a fork of the support, which is also of wood. When the water raised is to be emptied into the distributory channel, the weight of the short end holds the vessel at the level of the surface. The manual labour necessary is employed to sink the vessel in the well; a curiously inverted process, but which answers its purpose. The weight is so graduated as to only just exceed that of the water vessel when full.

As to the means of raising the water there are two kinds of mising water, charsa wells; the rope-and-bucket, or charsa, and the Persian wheel or harat. The first is the only kind used in the southern part of the district, and up northward to Rathdhanah, i.e., nearly as far as Sunipat. Then comes a small zone in which both charsa and harat are found, and then beyond this comes the part where only the harat is used. Both kinds of wells are so commonly known that it is unnecessary to describe them.* There is the question, however, of comparative efficiency as regards irrigation, on which a few notes may be made. It is not merely the depth of the spring level that practically decides the question for the agriculturist which he shall use. It is far more, if not entirely, a matter of custom and traditional habit. There are villages in the Khadar, where the water is so near that a Persian wheel would seem the simplest mode of raising water, where yet from long hereditary use the people employ only the charsá. And again in some villages north of Sunipat the water is not so very near as from this cause alone to make the harat specially eligible. A fact which is more likely to afford a partial explanation in some cases is the difference in the division of labour. In the harat the arduous labour falls alone on the oxen. In the charsa, while the animals have to work hard, there is also a good deal of active though intermittent labour for the men. The toil of the oxen in the harat is unremitting, while in the charsá, though the temporary strain is greater, there are intervals of rest while the animals are coming up from the hollow (gon), where they are released from the láo. The man driving the Persian wheel ordinarily sits on the beam behind the oxen as they go round. The influence of the active muscular strain in the charsa work is seen in the well developed sinewy frames of the Jats and Ahirs who work at this from morning till night. Mr. Maconachie writes:

"Personal observation obtained figures, which may be relied on as trustworthy and carefully accurate. The depth of water of course is a very

The Chapter IV, A. Agriculture and Live-Stock. Jhalár; dhènkli.

> Two modes of and harat.

^{*} The double rope of the harat is called mal; the wooden transverse pieces in which the tindas are fastened are called redl; the ends of these perforate the two parts of the mal. The bar is the wheel on which it lies.

earth is excavated down to the spring level; then the nim-chak is made, a round frame either of kikur, lasora or allak; the wood is about 11 foot broad, and a span thick (i.e., high). The pieces are fitted closely together like those of a wheel, and are fastened with On this is built up the masoury cylinder (gold or kothi). This generally extends beneath the surface from 14 to 17 haths and above it some 12 or 13 háths. On the top of this cylinder a rough frame-work is placed consisting of four large beams, two one way and two another (dhúran.) On these is heaped up a mixture of mud and earth as a make-weight, and the earth dug out from below is also put on it. The weight thus accumulated sinks the well down to the surface or further. It is then built up again. The old way used to be to sink the cylinder down to the real spring level; but now the usual way is to sink it as said before, down some 14 or 15 cubits, and then bore down in the centre of the cylinder with a ball made of two or three beams fitted together and headed with a sharp point. Across this balli is fitted a cross beam (dandila) to both ends of which is fastened a well-rope. This is passed over a pulley (chák or bháwan), as at the well, and then the balli is alternately raised and let down, sinking down at each time lower and lower till the real spring is arrived This is at 52 háths beneath the surface, and this point, the natural spring level (sár), is called accordingly báwaní. Khadar water is found at 14 haths, and the cylinder goes some seven or eight háths below this point. The nim-chak is made by the village carpenter; the masonry work requires a mason who is found only in the towns or larger villages. In the Khadar the excavation is made by the Jats themselves. In every village are several fellows who can dive (gote mdr), and they go down into the water with the khássa, which brings up each time enough earth to give hard work to some twenty men to raise it up on to the dharan or platform. The divers are of every tribe and caste. In the Bángar the plan used to be the same, but since the canal irrigation has rendered the sub-soil percolation more copious, few men not making a regular trade of it can stand the enormous flow of water that comes in below a certain depth, so that the diver who can work in a Bangar golá generally becomes known; he has also the dignity of a special name* Sthá. They are generally of the Jhinwar They get about 12 annas or Re I per foot of excavation, with a pagri at the finish. For beginning the work of course a lucky day is necessary. The parohit or some other person possessing the necessary learning is called in, and generally getting something for his pains, either a rupee, or some meal and ghi, points out the propitious season. It is incumbent on the husbandman at all events to make a beginning on that day; if he cannot conveniently spend much time he must at least dig not less than five hoe-fuls with his kassi. The undertaking thus auspiciously begun may then be intermitted, if need be, for a month. There is a practice still obtaining in some parts of placing five vessels full of water on the spot chosen for the well. After standing for a whole night, if they are found full in the morning, the place is reckoned lucky. If not

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture and
Live-Stock.

Sinking a well.

Jhámí—the tool is called jhám,

When food is thus given it is called sidha.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture and Live-Stock-Sinking a well.

Quality of water.

full, expectation of good water is unreasonable. Some of the intelligent zamindárs, however, doubt whether this is thoroughly reliable. A more reasonable custom is that of distributing alms, large or small, on the completion of the undertaking. When asked what would happen if this is not done, the zamindárs reply—"who would omit such a good precaution? The work of danger is finished, and thanks are reasonable." The speculative character of the risks in sinking a well is shown by the proverb: "To dig a pond requires but money. But Rámá's aid (is necessary) for a well."

Distinctions are drawn here, as elsewhere, as to the quality of the water, which may be sweet (mitha), brackish (malmala), or salt (namkin or khárá.) The salt water is of course not good for irrigation; but the brackish wells often produce the finest crops, nor is this good effect confined alone to inferior soils. On superior soil also it is considered best of all to have the first watering (kor or korwá,) made by brackish water, and then water with sweet. Where there are two wells within a practicable distance of each other, the water of both will be interchanged in this way: the brackish water irrigating the lands of both for the kor, and then the sweet water coming over all in its turn. The reason given for this is that the land requires some degree of saltness; it is alleged that there will be a perceptible difference in the yield of two fields side by side, one of which has the malmalá kor and the other the sweet. The appreciation of salt as a manure is shown from the fact that it is common to scrape the ground round the abadi and carry it on the fields, one eart-load being a dose for two kacha. bighas. Distinction is even made in the quality of land from its trees; the best banjar is shown by the growth of dhák; then bánsá (Tephrosia purpurea), and lastly kair. The bánsá itself is known as a salt plant, and consequently the land near the plant for a short time is productive, but afterwards becomes what it naturally, would be.

Irrigation from bands.

: Irrigation from bands is a characteristic feature in all parts of the district lying under or near the hills. The principle is that of concentrating the rainfall so as permanently to moisten a given cultivated area, allowing surplus water to run or drain off; and applications of this principle were successfully made on a large scale by the former rulers of the country. In no respect perhaps does the civilization of the Mughal Empire show better than in this of artificial irrigation. In a report of 1848, written by Mr. E. Battie, charge of the Najafgarh jhil works, there is an interesting account of two of the largest of the hill circle bands, Chhatarpur and Khirkí. But there are numerous others, which only a good local knowledge gives an acquaintance with, for most of them are in a semi-ruinous condition, and not a few are in out-of-the-way corners, among ravines or on the slope of not very Some are evidently too far gone for repair, some accessible hills. are not worth it,* but others almost certainly are. It gives a sense of dreary desolation to ride through these gaping holes in what

^{*} There is a printed correspondence on this subject with Government letter, No. 2,927 I, dated 10th July 1877.

are still magnificent lines of works which might be so beneficial Chapter IV, A.

and remunerative.

On the next page is given a list of all but very petty bands, showing the locality and the area affected by them, with some other facts. One or two of the large earth work bunds, and notably that of Tilpat, have been very much injured by the construction of the Agra canal, the line of which comes down athwart the catch basin of the band in one part. It may be noted that there are places here and there where probably new bands might be constructed with snecess. There are two or three places at the foot of the hills on their Ballabgarh side, where it is almost impossible to think that water might not be thus advantageously stored.*

There are besides the hill bands in the north-west of Ballabgarh, the south-west of Delhi, and the east eentre of Ballabgarh, several minor bands made to eatch the drainage near Dhauj and Pálí, but these apparently are very happy-go-lucky concerns, and are not at present of any considerable importance. There is also, or rather was, a band in the boundary of Pugthallah in the northwest of Sunipat taksil, which the men of that village either erected or, as some say, strengthened in the stormy days of the mutiny. The canal officers, on the ground that a natural drainage of the country was obstructed, have now obtained the demolition of the band. This band did good to the lands of Pugthallah by keeping the water of the land, allowing moisture to come only by percolation.

The Nagasgarh jhil and its drainage works are described in the Settlement Report. The system of cultivation pursued by the villagers bordering the *jkil* is suited to the eireumstances under which they are placed. Experience has taught them the level which the waters usually attain; and with reference to this, is the disposition of their crops. That is, from the higher grounds they obtain the common barání erops; their cotton is sown out of reach of anything but extraordinary floods; their sugarcane fringes the whole jhil, and is kept accurately a little above, but close to, the ordinary level of the jhil water, so as to facilitate the irrigation of the phit without actually subjecting it to injury from submersion; the grounds in the immediate vicinity of the jhil are sown with given and wheat, and also as the water retires in consequence of being expended in irrigation, by partial drainage, by evaporation, &c., the rich soil laid dry is ploughed up, and produces a fine crop of wheat.

The canal-irrigation is perhaps the most important of all; important both for good, and for ill. Irrigation from the Agra eanal is, and perhaps always will be, insignificant, owing to the high level of the land in this district through which it runs. But the water of the Western Jamna Canal has for many years been a factor of enormous power in determining the condition of the zamindar in

a large and densely populated portion of the district.

Agriculture and Live-Stock. List of bands.

Minor bands.

Najafgarh jhil.

Canal-irrigation.

^{*} Mr. Maconachie writes in 1884: "Since this was written a change has taken place, the limits of which it is at present difficult to estimate. Many of the old bands have since the beginning of 1883 been put into thorough repair; other bands have been made, and there are other schemes coming on for early execution. About half a lao of rupees have been or are being spent, and there will be an increase of produce on the least protected parts of the district of about that amount. And we have not done yet half what can be done."

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture and Live-Stock. List of bands.

	Namo.		Tabsíl.	•	Remarks as to area irrigated, condition, &c.
1	Ambarhai	•**	Delhi	***	Estimated to irrigate 215 acres, but this band, has been broken, and is not world repair, in fact it probably did more harm
2	Araugpur		Ballabgarh		About 130 acres are moistened by this band, which is a natural basin, and thus is easily
8	Bijwasan	•••	Delhi	•••	kept in fair working order. About 300 acres were moistened by this band, but it is broken now, and should not be repaired, as it does more harm
4	Chhaiarpur	•**	Ballabgarh	***	than good. A fine hand, moistening some 500 acres; broken and wants repairing. If it is not repaired, deterioration of the neighbouring
6	Gwalpabari		Gurgáon	•••	lands is certain. Another fine hand; the lands of six villages would benefit from its repair, and will be
8	Hauz Khás	•••	Ballabgarh	•••	damaged by its continued broken condition. About 40 seres here form a hauz, or bath- tank, in fair preservation, and there is no
7	Khirkí	•••	Ballabgarh	***	chance of damage. This band is broken, and might well be re- paired; it would present the formation of ravines and fissures over a large extent of
8	Mahpalpur		Delhi	***	ground. A very fine masonry band, but broken and neglected; would moisten 200 acres if well backets.
	Manakpur Basantnagar.		Delhi	740	looked after, and preserve other land too. A first-rate position, for a hand, but broken now in the middle; still moistens about 1000 acres. Ravines are forming near the
10	Narkina		Delhi	**1	hreak—a masonry band. A kacha band made in 1861, and broken in 1875. No need to repair it; it is not in a
11	Pálam		Delbi	•••	good place. A large work, broken, and not fit to be repaired. If bands are made on this side of the hills, they should be made higher up,
12	Rajokhri		Dellii	>	i. c., more to the east than this line. A very strong masonry band of ancient make, long since partially broken; now it would be difficult to repair, as deep
13	Sultáupur		Ballabgarh		ravines have formed. A pakka hand repaired by the zamindars; somewhat broken but not much, and will be now doubtless repaired. Moistens some
14	Tilpat		Ballabgarh		A large kacht band, made in 1861; broken by the line of the Agra Canal. It still moistens some land, but not mach.
15	Tughlakábád		Ballabgarh	***	in 1861; broken, but might well be re- paired, perhaps by the samindars; about
16	Yáhyánagar	•••	Ballabgarh		110 acres moistened by them- A kachs band made in 1861, and still in good repair Some dbiand is taken here.

Irrigation by tor and dál.

Of the two modes of irrigation, that of flow (tor) is far more common than by dál or lift. Irrigation by lift is more advantageous in this, that it implies a higher level of land to be irrigated, and a greater labour in irrigating it, so that as a rule a tor village is likely to be more water-logged than a dál one. The average acreage under dál irrigation for seven years in the kharíf was 1,617 acres as compared with 38,690 tor; and in the rabí 4,545 as compared

with 33,978 tor, The rates charged as ábiáná on the canal vary according to the class of crop, as below*:-

·	·	ī.	II.	· III.	17.	· v.
		Sugarcano. Gardens.	Rice. V.bucco. Opium. Vegetables. Water-nuts. (Singhárás)	Indigo. Cotton. All rabi crops. Foriá.	All kharif crops. not specified above.	A single watering before sowing or to fallow lands.
AGBE.	By over flow.	Rs. 5 0 0 per crop. per annum.	Rs. 3 0 0 per crop.	Rs. 2 4 0 per crop.	Re. 1 10 8 per crop.	Rė, 1 0 0
PERA	By lift.	Rs. 3 5 4 per crop. per aunum.	Rs. 2 0 0 per crop.	Rs.180 per crop.	Re. 1 0 0 per crop.	Re, 0 10 0

Chapter IV, A Agriculture and

Live-Stock. 'Abiáná (Water- . . rates.)

The tabular statement on the next page shows the irrigation from Canal irrigated area. the canal for the seven years ending 1877-78.

Crop.	1880-81	1681-82.	
Kangni	258	247	
China	266	218	
Mattar	1,607	1,137	
Mách (Urd)	4.009	3,416	
Mone	4,425	3,947	
Masur	642	306	
Arhar	13,654	1,188	
Coriander	863	549	
Ginger	•••	2	
Chillies	6,145	5,712	
Other drugs and			
apices	857	629	
Lin-e-d	2	29	
Mustard	3,783	8,738	
Til	526	463	İ
Tara Mira	5,804	5,363	l
Hemp	461	488	
17 LL	1 000	101	•

279

2,643

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مبره

Hemp Resumble

Other orops ...

Under the new arrangement owner's Owner's rate how rate is to be taken at one-half of the abiana: and this is to be taken per crop, so that dofasli land will pay owner's rate twice.

Table No. XX shows the areas under the principal agricultural staples. The remaining acres under crop in

the manner shown in the margin. The principal crops of the district, with the areas under each, as ascertained

during the recent Settlement measure-

ments, are given at the top of page 113.

1880-81 and 1881-82 were distributed in

Principal staples.

Crops and areas under each.

The largest acreages, it will be seen, are as follows:— KHARIF. RABI.

191

14,045

Jowar 1.01,589 Wheat Bajra 90,320 Barley Sugarcane 30,782 Gram Cotton 28,835 Barley and Gram Wheat and Gram Wheat and Gram	44,141 43,265 33,473 24,527
1 Transferd Canal 114	21,021

Some crops, such as sugarcane and rice, are hardly ever grown except on irrigated and manured soil, while others are for the most part grown on land dependent on rain for its moisture. these last are bájrá, jowár and channá.

The tabulated statement on page 114 gives the leading facts res- Tabular statement pecting the cultivation of the chief crops; while a more detailed account of the cultivation of melons and sugarcane, both of which present in a way special features, will be found at page 113.

* Sanctioned in No. 212 of 10th September 1873, from Government of India, Public Works Department, to Joint Secretary to Government; Punjab, and published in Gazette, No. 4,068,I of 29th September 1873.

of agricultural operations for various crops.

Chapter IV, A.
Agriculture and
Live-Stock.
Caral-inigatei area.

			•	KHARIW.	-c.*.						naur.	Action of the British of the Action of the A	and designation and the second in the second	esections of the control of the cont	-	Whith.
Ynan,	•	Anna in	Апил гангалтии си дания.	Y ACKING.	Ажоиня	AMOUNT OF WATHI-HATH	B-WATH.		Auna in	Aana inhidathu in annin	:	AMOUNT	AMOUNT OF WATER HATH.	n Harn.		
	29 <u>2</u> 21177	Tor.	,IACL	Total	Nor.	DAI,	Total.	- FILTIN	Tor.	DAI,	Potni.	Tor.	balon Total	Total.	ilju telj	A THE STATE OF THE
1871-73	209	100'07	1,636	46,330	1,64,005	oreta	1,67,998	502	67,739	0,684	61,288	1,00,001	0.130	1.00.119	1.00,810	P. Dd. Day
167.9 7.0	£0;	40,800	8/0'r	820°0% .	1,07,000	1,000	1,71,690	¥	201,02	N.7.16	018,310	67,466	7,760	70,311		
1873.74		290,00	11811	40,403	1,64,207	192'0	1,67,00)	178	111,170	6,062	20,123	01,650	7,168	10,412	01,416	
1874-75	99	28,320		20,723	1,07,304	261.0	1,111,1101	100	110,070	00000	tringth.	(II) (III)	4,813	111,881	72,101	1,04,913
1870.77	1 2	8-5,190		30,640	1,90,037	8,200	1,20,025	2	20,407	1,384	CON, CAS	43,116	. 2,130	41,231	13 K'H0	
	<u> </u>	760,00	191.1		1,30,300	000'6	1,43,530	170	10g ^a ar	ile,i	11,400	20'09	talling.	atto,m	71,100	
		100%	100'1	. 4n _p ana	1,56,020	1,1171	1,56,607	že!	47,1116	Ebp'a	23 (1)	3,02,746	110'0	1,011,1171	90,462	11,117,170
Torán	- 	25		==	10,09,130	31,110	10,20,25	2101	2,37,410	81,910	2,00,460	0,10,039	41,038	6.8 1.008	0.61,000	In Health
111 211	100	00,000	1,017	101:101	1,43,103	21.640	1, 40,000	Till!	626,00	4,5 13	07,020	79,200	D,942	70.180	411 10160	

Statement of area in acres under each crop at the time of Settlement measurements.

			Delhi.	Ballabe garh.	Sunipat.	Total.	Reuleks.
Килять	Cotton Vectables Chillies Sugarcauo Rice Juár Rájra Tii		4,939 457 - 317 15,714 3,962 30,616 1,018 45,836 6	11,521 253 69 120 1 24,085 1,450 36,636 8	12,375 301 1,173 14,030 7,656 45,034 6,672 7,910 7	28,935 1,101 1,578 30,792 11,819 1,01,549 8,010 90,320 20 1,213	
K)	Hemp Chari Guár Lobia Italian Millet Moth Ming Uhená, &o	•••	38 693 3,457 60 5 1,474 693 126 30,806	923 2,141 1 2,009 97 1 21,313	0,670 3 71 3,732 103 139 57,103	793 206	The difference between the total here given and thatontered as cultivated wiz., 5,19,417, is due to the default hand which
ī.	Wheat and Gram Wheat and Itarley Il arley Barley and Gram Gram Melona Ajwāin, Saunf, &c. Tobacco	***	8,287 6,301 15,155 0,472 23,818 1,419 850 660	2,190 4,839 25 824 21,830 2,981 55 59 461	14,050 600 3,163 2,162 10,193 61 83 262	24,527 10,829 44,141 33 173 43,266 1,554 492 1,286	hore appears twice.
RADI.	Onion Safilower Safilower Sarson Tarah Masúr Arhar Peas	***	30 71 118 660 8 238 789	24 142 64 643 79 62 489	37 75 247 1,553 13	21 298 419 2,756 100 280 1,427	
	TOTAL.		2,06,696	1,61,224	2,06,814	5,74,731	

to 121. The estimates of produce given in the following tables are not too high for good soil, but are too high for the general average of the whole district.

Sugarcane is the most important and profitable crop of the kharif harvest in the Delhi and Sunipat Bangar tracts. The average acreage under cane in the district for the last ten years is given as 4,347. The land taken is the best in the village, that is to say, some of the best is taken every year; it is a sign of weakness of resources when cane follows cane on the same ground. † Nor without manuring is the cultivation profitable. Cotton is a first-rate crop to follow cane, and then after the cotton cane can be planted a second time if manure is available, otherwise wheat will grow well without It is not usual to try for a rabi crop when cane is to be planted in the spring; if this is done the latter will suffer by being planted late (pachetr). Ratooning (leaving the roots to produce a second crop in the succeeding year, called muridaile) is uncommon now, though in old times it was often practised. The change may be put down to the decreased fertility of the soil, or, as the zamindárs themselves say, to the increase in resources as shown in the greater power to buy seed, and the greater number of hands avail-

Agriculture and Live-Stock.
Crops and areas

under each.

Cultivation of sugarcane.*

^{*} See Mr. Butt's account of sugarcane cultivation in Shahjehanpur (Revenue Reporter N. W. P.) 1874, Vol. III. No. 1.
† According to the rhyme: "To plant cotton after cotton and sugarcane after"

^{**} According to the rhyme: "To plant cotton after cotton and sugarcane after sugarcane, to attend to other people's advice, these three things ruin a house."

1 So the rhyme:—"If cotton follows cane, no bare place will remain."

Chapter	ī۷,	A.

Agriculture and Live-Stock.

Tabular Statement of agricultural operations for various crops.

	, La and
	TOTION AND DISTRIBUTION.
	PRODUCTION
4	
_	norks as to weather, rain and soil required. and beirt in the early rainy and beirt in the early rainy and beirt in the early rainy and beirt in the early of the live beirt per be land may bein the port beirt per no in the port bein the beirt in this dis- gwanny rileage of Sunipet Is grown rileage of Sunipet Is grown rileage of Sunipet Is grown in this dis- gwanny rileage of Sunipet Is grown bost in the both is border to sugarenne, here bost in the both fland was irrigation. pieus irrigation.
	morks as to weathor, rain and soil required. Good rain is wantedfor jewedr act being the early rainy Good rain is wantedfor jewedr for the two bedy rains in on the poorer soil for the ray bed distinguished for the ray bed distinguished in of leing this. In the line this. In the line this is grown in the proven best in the box Article it wants muting the wants muting the pious irrigation. Grows bost in the box in and very manufact; it wants muting the wants muting the wants muting the wants muting the rains of the pious irrigation. Grows bost in the box Article it wants muting the wants muting the pious irrigation To bridge and of the pious irrigation wheel, and are wants muting derate moisture. All fight comparatively all the comparatively all the comparatively and are the soil of the main of the muting derate moisture. All all the comparatively and are the soil of the main of the muting derate moisture.
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	CHAI	2. IV.—P	RODUCTIO	и и	. מת	TKIDOT	ON.		
Soo aboyo.	Seo abovo.	Extensively growth, but solu- dom of fine growth, or very good quality; the roin for it should be enry—and the scason not too cold at the jime when the picking	Degins.	-	Whent is not grown go- norshy except in good soil, and there are retious distinctions drawn in some	harlog stands to wheat as bayes due to bear a term minday will rarely grow barlog if he thinks the ground will grow wheat	Woll, A light crop, wants oarly rain, god the winter rain (makazat,) and a gentle equal wind, A dry biast	withers the plant. Like pepper in preferring the dry, het soil of the khandrift and copious waterings.	
or hariey—then ming after allow- ing the land to looking the land to look ming the land to look	whom or bestur. Preceded by bestur. and succeeded by ming; after ming	Preceded by wheat, ood succeeded by cotton—generally 6 month's rest allowed.	Cotton.			Bajra or joudr (800 abovo).	Preceded by jover. and succeeded by the same.	Proceded by ootton, and succeeded by jondr.	
Katik 3 to 5 mds.	3 to 5 mds.	Chahi 3 or 4 wids. Barani 13 to 2 mas.	10 to 40 mds. (Gur.)		Chaft-10 to 13 mds. Darant-5 to 8 mds.	Chahi-11 to 16 mds. Barani-6 to 9 mds.	5 to 9 mds.	15 to 20 mds.	
Kátik	Kátik	Asauj to Mangsir.	Mangheir to Chait.		Baisákb	chait	Ohait	Joth	
Unirrigated.	f Toirrigated.	Irrignted (3 or 2 waterings)	Irrigated (5 to 8 waterings with rain 16 or 20) (but with bout.)	pendix IV.]	If irrigated, 6 wateriogs are given.	As above	Unitrigated.	Irrigated (20 waterings.)	
Manuro not used.	Manure not used.	Manuro used on child land only.	sto 10 6 to 9 or 10 Mauuro used.		Manure nsed ou child land not on barani.	Manuro usod on chahisome- times ou barani also.	Monure not used.	Manuro used as for wheat.	
	1-	**	5 to 9 or 10		Chahi-2, Baraní-1,	Chahl—1, Barant none,	No clean- ings.	ø	
69		3 tō 5	5 to 10		6 to 9	6 to 9	89	10	7
6 sors	6 gers	7 sors	18 púlle each púll=164 gandls (bits of cane.)		21 to 30 sers.	15 to 21 sors.	12 to 15 sers.	2 sors.	
Without watering.	Withont watering	Do. Paleud if sown in Chait.	Phégna vod <i>Palewá</i> Chalt.		Palend, if the sail is dofasti;	without it	Without	After	-
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Habi	Moth	Coft u	Sugareane		Wheat	Barloy	Gram	opaeco	

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture and Live-Stock. Tabular Statement of agricultural operations for various crops.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture and Live-Stock.

Tabular Statement of agricultural operations for various crops.

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Number of Is wanure used Irrigated or Month of Produco por Preceded and suc. Bomarks as to weather, rain, deaulogs or not. and soil required.	This brings out the salt of the soil, which tolinced			
Preceded and enc. ceded by what crops	Seo Wheat	Trigated (15 Jeth 12 to 15 mds Preceded by cotton waterings.)	50 to 250 n ds. Preceded by mikli, same.	
Produco per pakká bigh s	3 to 5 mds.	12 to 15 mds	60 to 260 n ds.	
Month of harvest.	Paisákh	Jeth	Joth	,
Irrigated or	3ee wheat.	Irrigated (15 waterings.)	Manuro need. If irrigated, John proceeding no. jerigaled bo.	moist lands. ("ee Appendix IV)
la wanure used or not.	No olean - Soo whent.	Soe whest.	Manure used.	
Numher of hoeing-1 or cleanings	No olean-	m	Ø	
Number of plough- ings.		60	•	
Sownafter When sown for the Quantity of seed or with per pakkd bigha. out.	1 ser.	Beowheat. have to kaser.	14000	
Sownafter watering (palmed) or with-	Scowbeat 1 ser.	Seo wheat.	Wilbout & sor.	
When sown	Katik	Mágh	Nash Mash	
9. 5. 5. 163716H	Barson	Chins	inth	

able for labour. There are three kinds of sugarcane known in the district.

(1.)—Lallri—said to be the original kind, and considered the best as no insects attack it. This is the only kind actually used in Cultivation of Suthe district.

(2.) - Mirati-very productive and white, but if the gir is kept long it gets worms, and it is weak also in the rains, and sometimes falls. (3.)-Soratha-white and productive. Good for sucking, but

Not so subject to worms as mirath.

Paunda, or ganna, is distinguished from the ordinary sugarcane by its thickness. It requires more water for its cultivation, and gir is not made from it. Its only use in fact-often a very profitable one—is for eating; it is sold in the bazar at prices varying from 1 to I or even 11 anna the stick. The kind first sown is mirati, then soratha, and lálrí last. Miratí is quickest is springing. A speciality is said to exist in later that it can be reproduced from any knot of the stalk (ganda), whereas for mirati and sorutha only the top knot of each stalk will do.

Sugarcane for seed is put in clamps (bijghara) in Phagan, where the earth keeps it moist and fresh, a damp situation being considered good. What is kept in the house is for use; it does not keep long. The plonghing generally begins in June, unless there is a crop tried for in the kharif preceding the cane crop. If a zumindár has enough ground, he will avoid doing this. the kharif crop is taken, the ploughing for sugarcane begins in (Poh) December, and is continued at intervals according to leisure and other circumstances, the number of times varying from five to twelve. The first two ploughings may well be made one directly after the other, but the subsequent ploughings should come at intervals. For the first ploughing, either rain or a first watering (palewa or palco) is necessary. Sometimes the land is dug (with a kasi or kald) for the first time, and this is fully equal to two ploughings. No cash estimate of the cost of this can usefully be made, as it is never done by hired labour.

The quantity of manure used is very large; from three to six four-bullock waggon-loads go to a kacha bigha. This at the lowest estimate, gives $3 \times 3 \times \frac{\pi}{5} \times 20$ manuals = 288 manuals = nearly 11 tons to an English acre. The zamiadárs urge strongly, that without such manuring the land will not be fairly productive. The time for putting in the manure begins in Magh, and goes on to the end of Phagan, and sometimes even after planting. After manuring, the land is ploughed, unless of course it has been sown. Ploughing takes place in the end of Phágan (February, March) and may be continued through Cheyt, but the best time is the beginning of the latter month. Water is given before planting. Furrows are made regularly along the field, and a boy follows the plough, putting in the seed pieces of cane (gandiri), which must have one or more points in each piece, horizontally at regular distances,* usually rather less

Chapter IV, A.

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garcane.

^{*} The way of calculating the distance is by counting the number of pulis (or bundles), planted in a hucha bigha (5-6 of an English rood); seven bundles are a large number, making of course the intervals smaller, six a very frequent one. The

bigka.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture and Live-Stock. Cultivation of Sngarcane. than a foot along the furrow. The seed-stalks are taken out of the clamp; one man cuts it up, or rather two, as one cannot do it well alone. Another man carries it to the place where it is put in ; four or five are wanted to plant for one plough. There is, however, no lack of hands, as all the young boys of the family help in this, in order to get the holiday food, which is given on planting day. The food consists of rice, sugar, and ghi and mixtures of these, and such food-giving is called Mah Kuli or gur bhata; the work begins in the morning, and goes on till it is done. Three yoke of oxen can get through ten kacha bighas a day. One yoke ploughs, and the other two follow with the soldgd (clod crusher). Water is given a month after planting, and, if the rains are good three subsequent waterings are enough; if they are not, as many as five may be necessary at intervals of a month. Cultivation of cane by well-irrigation is not uncommon in the Khadar of Sunipat, but is not usually if ever met within the Delhi tahsil. In Ballabgarh, there are three or four villages which have it. Delhi, too, has some in the Dáhar circle, from natural flooding. A fair well may water \(\frac{3}{2}\) bight. in a day.

Hoeing is carefully kept up; the number of times depends much on the character of the season, and varies from five to nine or ten. The first time comes a few days only after planting. A man's fair work per day at hoeing is put at three biswas. When the canes get high, they are generally tied together at the top. Cutting begins in October; it is a practice for Hindus not to begin till after the Dassehrah. Hired cutters get Rs. 3 a month and their food, but the zamindár, unless lazy, does much himself in this. A two-ox waggon should cart one bigha's cane in a month, but the animals do other work probably besides. Rent paid by zabti is about Rs. 5 per bigha, but in some villages it goes even up to Rs. 9. It is taken at the time the Government revenue falls due, and does not depend on the quality of the crop. No difference is made in the rent, whether in the previous kharif another crop was taken; but when

the land was left fallow it is called tapar.

The expenses of cultivation may be thus summed up:

Ploughing ten times	•••	•••	•••	10	0	0	$p_{1}kka$
Manure	•••	• •	• •	5	0	0	_
Seed	***	•••	***	5	0	0	
Irrigation	•••	***	•••	4	2	0	
Price of water	3 2 0						
Cleaning of water course	100						
Hoeing	•••	•••	***	4	U	0	
Tring up canes	***	***		2	0	0	
Cutting and stripping	•••	•••		7	0	0	
Rent	•••	•••		6	0	0	
Carriage to the kolhú		•••	•••	3	0	0	
Planting (estimated)				2	0	0	
raming testimacon	• •	***	***	-	_		

The kollú or sugar mill is made of four kinds of wood, first quality sál, second kíkar, third siris, fourth farásh; kíkar is the one most commonly used. The mechanism of the kollú is the

way of getting at the púla is rather curious. As many sticks as laid down in a line make up 21 háths (or cubits) make a parya, and either 29 or 21 paryas (according to two different standards) make a pull; a rupee will buy three or sometimes four púlis.

same as in Shahjehanpur; the names, too, are much alike; kolhi is the mill itself, náth is the horizontal boom, làth or mohan is the pestle, and mankri (instead of markam) is the diagonal spar Agriculture and joining the páth and the láth; bánkmal is the piece (not noted in Mr. Butt's description) which springs up from the boom, and receives the lower end of the mankri. The five pieces, therefore, form an irregular pentagon; the kollic standing upright, the path working on its outside edged horizontally, the bankmal stands vertical to the path at its further end; from the upper end of the bánkmal springs the mánkri inclining to meet the láth, which also works slantingly in the kolhú.

A kallul complete costs Rs. 80 or Rs. 90, or even more, the work being made as durable and thorough in every respect as is possible to the not inconsiderable skill of the local carpenter. The ldth often breaks, and must be replaced at the cost of a rupee. It is always made of kikar. The wages of the carpenter who looks after the kolhú are considerable. The produce of about 40 bighas of sugarcane is pressed in one kolhú; a good many proprietors unite generally in working it. They bring their cane themselves from the field, and put it together, reckoning their several shares by the number of oxen they each have. A kolhú lent on hire is said to cost Rs. 7 to the hirer, but it is often more than this. The men who own the cane, almost always own the oxen that work the kolha. Four kinds of work are distinguished in the kolhú. Two pindías put the short cut pieces of cane (girariyan) into the kolhu, and take out the cane straw khói; one man relieves the other at this ardnons work, which is also rather dangerous for any but a left handed person. Wages Rs. 10 to Rs. 15 a month. Two guriyas who cook the gar. Four jhouknewalas who keep up the fire, and dry the khói. Two muthiyas, who feed the pindiás with ent up canes. put into a basket. The man who sits on the path, driving the oxen, is not a hired labourer but one of the proprietors. Two men are employed with each pair of oxen. The surgarcane is generally ent by the proprietors, or by hired labourers at two annas a day each. The kolhú goes on day and night, but the workers are divided into day and night batches. A matka holding twenty sers is filled with the pressed juice in about an hour; and the oxen do this twice before they get taken off. The juice is thrown into the kind, a large earthen jar. From there it is put into the karai or cooking cauldron, and is boiled slowly till it becomes pretty thick, and then it is put into a second vessel smaller than the first, and the boiling process goes on till the gur becomes thick and consistent enough to make the bhélis or gur-balls. These are always four sers each. The place where the cooking goes on is called a gurgól. It is merely a thatched shed with a hollow floor to allow of the kasais being placed in it, and underneath them the cooking-fires. Molasses (rab), and coarse sugar (shakar) are not made in this district, or if made, very

Chapter IV, A. Cultivation of

Sugarcane.

^{*} See foot note to page 113.

[†] Since this was written the new iron kalhu patented by Thomson and Mylne has obtained great popularity in the district. Its superiority is admitted on all sides.

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Sugarcane.

Cultivation of Melons.

rarely; it would of course be a more delicate process than the primitive one above described: yet this too requires care. If the boiling is too prolonged it spoils the gúr and diminishes its selling value. Delhi district gúr goes to Bághpat, Biwáni in Hisár, and Rewárl and Fírozpur Jhirka in Gurgáon. The zamíndár generally manages his gur-making himself, and there is no commonly received rate of sale, but Bághpat rates more or less influence the market. There is no custom of kataotí as in Sháhjehánpur. The weight of juice turned out is commonly sof the sugarcane. The straw is used for burning in the gurgóí; it is good for nothing else; and from the juice so its weight will turn out in gúr.

Melons are chiefly cultivated on the sandy soil of the river side near Delhi; the soil considered good is dumat, (i.e., do matti) being a earth and a sand. The cultivators are chiefly tenants, such as Mális, Káchís, Mallahs, and Shaikhs, but in some places proprietors cultivate themselves. Before the crop is sown an agreement, generally in writing, is made fixing Rs. 5 to Rs. 15 per acre as rent for rabi. Manure is bought at a rate of Rs. 6 per 100 bullock loads weighing 24 maunds each when the field is within two miles from Delhi; when it is further off, then from Rs. 7 to Rs. 12 per hundred. 150 loads are required for an acre of land. The cost of manure per acre therefore is Rs. 9 for villages within two miles from Delhi and from Rs. 10 to Rs. 18 for villages beyond this. This includes both cost and carriage. When the manure has been brought to the field the cultivator must buy phla bundless of kans grass, for fence and screen for the young and tender crop. This will cost him about Rs. 10 an acre, a thousand bundles (púlas) being required at Re. 1 a hundred. This screen is called taota, and fence bhei. Pits are dug in a line at distances of three feet yard square, and 11 yard in depth. It is not essential to have the depth so great, but as the sand silts in from the side it is generally done. The object is to reach down to the dumat soil above spoken of, which is found sometimes at less cometimes at more than this depth. On every line the grass fence is stuck in to protect it from sand blown in by the wind. When the pits are ready, the manure is mixed with earth and thrown into hem, and a hollow bed (tháonlá) is made in the centre of the pit. Chirty men can thus prepare an acre of ground for seed in one day, and get for it Rs. 7-8 at a rate of four annas per head. re required to sow the seed when the tháonlás are ready, and at two innas a day each. Half a ser of seed will sow an acre, and costs eight innas. The labourers get into the pits and bury two seeds in each On the north side of the bed the screen (tatti) is erected. háonlá. Within 12 days the seed should sprout in every tháonlá; where it loes not, fresh seeds are sown. When the plants are a month old, hey are earthed up by hand to give strength to the roots; three men lo the work in an acre of land in one day and are paid four annas a nece. About a fortnight after this the screens and fences are pulled ip, and the pits are filled up with loose earth; the pula is spread over it nd the creeping plant laid carefully on it; ten men will do this in an cre per day costing Rs. 2-8. The grass keeps the plant from geting too dry. The crop is not irrigated, except in years of drought, then it gets water once; the labour of 12 men at two annas each will

manage for one acre in a day, generally by digging kachd wells on the bank of the river, and then using the dhenkli, or watering by hand from earthen vessels. The crop is gathered in May and June, and the crops are watched day and night to protect it from thieves, biped and quadruped. Jackals and wild pigs are fond of melons. Fires are lit, chiefly of the useful grass, which, having done its work, is thus disposed of. If the enltivator does not watch the crop himself, he keeps a watchman to do so at Rs. 4 a month. The cost of the crop and income realized from it may be reckoned at Rs. 50 and Rs. 120 respectively, and, if the cultivator is his own chaukidár, the cost is reduced to Rs. 42. In the villages, at some distance from Delhi, Rs. 6 must be added to the cost of manure. On the other hand, land in such villages is obtained at a lower rent, say Rs. 5; while near Delhi the rate of rent is often Rs. 10 per acre. The income is equal in both months, May and June, as in May the fruit is less in quantity but dear in price, while in June it is abundant, but fetches only a lower price.

The items of cost of cultivation per acre are shown here

together:--

					Rs.	Α.	ı,
Manure, 15	o loads	•••	•••	•••	9	0	0
		oula káus) 1,	000	•••	10	0	()
Labour for	digging	r pits	***	•••	7	8	0
Seed		444	•••	•••	0	8	0
Labour for	r sowin	œ	•••	•••	0	6	0
		g (thapna)	•••	•••	0	12	()
Labour for	filling t	ip pits and s	preading o	out the			
grass	•••	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	• •••	•••	2	8	0
Irrigation	•••	•••	•••	•••	1	0	0
Rent	•••	•••	•••	• • •	30	0	0
Wntchman		•••	***	•••	8	0	0
			TOTAL	•••	50	2	0

Government demand is Rs. 4 per acre near Delhi, and Rs. 3 and

Rs. 2-8 for lands lying further off the city.

Table No. XXI shows the estimated average yield in lbs. per aere of each of the principal staples, as shown in the Administration Report of 1881-82. The average consumption of food per head has already been noticed at page 46. The total consumption of food grains by the population of the district, as estimated in 1878 for the purposes of the Famine Report, is shown in maunds in the margin.

Grain.		Non-agri- culturis1s-	Total.
Whest Inferior grains Pulses Total	417,143	839,570	1,256,713
	1,213,508	615,685	1,829,193
	265,455	410,456	675,911
	1,896 106	1,865,711	3,761,817

The figures are based upon an estimated population of 608,850 souls. On the other hand the average consumption per head is believed to have been over-estimated. A rough estimate of the total production, exports, and imports of food

grains was also framed at the same time; and it was stated (page 151, Famine Report) that there was an annual deficit of nine lakhs of maunds, which had to be supplied by imports of wheat, gram, bájra,

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Average yield. Production and consumption of food grains.

watch of the night (pasar.) Sheep and goats cannot feed when Chapter IV, A. the dew is on the ground; they get worms in the mouth and feet. Water is given about 10 o'clock, and again after this toward sunset; they come home before the sun goes down. In the cold weather water is generally given only once, as of course thirst is less. The following statement shows the number of horned cattle, sheep, goats and marcs in the district as compiled from the Settlement Statements:-

Tansit.	CRAK.		lough sattle	Other kind.	Sheep.	Gonla,	Marcs.	TOTAL.
	Khadar Pángar		6,450	12,102	412	1,624	266	20 048
	10 t		8,319	20,327	0.50	3,530	336	130,061
	Dabri "ailaba		2,631	3,017	417	6:1	វ.វ	7.712
Battangarn.	Zerkold	[2,450	6,700	191	6,339	124	16,217
	lihandrát	\	1,250	3,022	214	FIM	35	6,360
	Kohi	}	2,411	12,030	123	12,713	30	27,776
	Torat		23,612	69,437	2,307	25,467	691	1,10,114
	Khidar Bangar	_ _	1,350	4,372	6.2	182	63	6 603
	95 7		11,201	32,455	2,201	3,225	193	49,675
	11 1111		7,118	17,027	704	600	191	25,003
Drint.	Zerkohi		2,404	6,4-0	493	675	116	10,613
•	Kohf		1,776	4,002	86	6-9	41	7.157
	Khandrat		1,033	3,778	820	711	64	6,143
	TOTAL		21,012	69,913	4,615	6,014	1,022	1,03,206
	(Khidar		14,700	29,740	4,840	2,531	278	61,937
SUNITAT.	Bångar	•••	17,517	44,001	3,401	4,431	376	73,145
	TOTAL		32,036	77,841	8,270	7,292	633	1,26,102
DISTRICT.	GRAND TOTAL		60,01G	2,03,101	15,222	39,703	2,634	3,42,423

In connection with the subject of cattle may be noticed the custom of rorá nikálná. Rorá is a disease of the eattle, as bad as cholera is for men. To do away with it a rope is tied across from one house to another at the entering in at the village; on it a piece of siris wood and a ghará-lid (chapni) are tied in the middle, and underneath it a plough in the ground. A weed, called bhainsá-gúgul, is burnt like inecuse in a fire: its smoke is put on all the animals . of the village; it either stops disease or prevents it; on the rope near the chapni a red piece of thread and supári (chhalia) is fixed; on the day of giving smoke to the animals they eat stale bread so as not to light their own fires. Neither is grinding heard throughout the village that day, which is called akhtá. All Hindu zamíndárs observe the eeremony, and so do Musalmáns.

There is nothing worthy of particular notice about the horses, Breeding operations. mules, &c., of the district. The style of mare possessed by the better class of zamindár has improved since the appointment of zaildárs, and there are some pretty animals, chiefly brought in from Kaithal and Patiála, ridden by these men, and the Sunipat camindárs have some good mares. In all perhaps 60 mares might be found fit for branding. Horse and mule-breeding, however, are not much attended to, though there are signs of the possibility of awakening interest in the matter, if it were energetically taken up. Some of the marcs are taken to the Government stallion at Patti Kallyana

Agriculture and Live-Stock. Live-stock.

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Breeding operations.

in Karnal. At present there are only one Government stallion horse, and one donkey-stallion, at Molarband near Badarpur, and at Sikri, both in the Ballabgarh tahsil. These are under the management of the Haupper Stud authorities. The breeding of oxen and cows is chiefly managed by the 'Brahmani' bulls (locally termed ánkal and bijar); though in one or two places Hissár bulls imported by Government have been let free with good effect. Rams are not of large size, some of the best are used for fighting. There are no horse or cattle fairs held in the district.

SECTION B.—OCCUPATIONS, INDUSTRIES AND COMMERCE.

Occupations of the people. Table No. XXIII shows the principal occupations followed by males of over 15 years of age as returned at the Census of 1881. But the figures are perhaps the least satisfactory of all the Census statistics for reasons explained in the Census Report; and they must be taken subject to limitations which are given in some detail in Part II, Chapter VIII of the same Report. The figures in Table No. XXIII refer only to the population of 15 years

Population.		Towns,	Villages.
Man a sudamitant	:::	10,091 193,626	247,363 192,435
Total		203,717	439,798

of age and over. The figures in the margin show the distribution of the whole population into agricultural and non-agricultural, calculated on the assumption that the number of women and children dependent upon each male of over

15 years of age is the same, whatever his occupation. These figures however, include as agricultural only such part of the population as are agriculturists pure and simple; and exclude not only the considerable number who combine agricultural with other occupations, but also the much larger number who depend in great measure for their livelihood upon the yield of agricultural operations. More detailed figures for the occupations of both males and females will be found at pages 69 to 78 of Table XIIA, and in Table XIIB of the Census Report of 1881. The figures for female occupations, however, are exceedingly incomplete.

Table No. XXIV gives statistics of the manufactures of the district as they stood in 1881-82, and Table No. XLVA gives similar figures for the manufactures of the Municipality of Delhi.

Mr. Lockwood Kipling, Principal of the Lahore School of Art, has kindly furnished the following note on some of the special industries of the district:—

"The reputation of Delhi as a manufacturing centre is perhaps greater than is warranted by the actual state of the industries now practised there. Many of the trades for which the city is famous, like, those of Lucknow, Gulburga and Haidarábád, (Deccan) are relics of the Musalman Courts, and only precariously survive. Nearly all are now, so far as their profits are concerned, in Hindu hands. Before it was a Mogul capital Delhi was a Hindu city; and it would seem that in wealth and in social and political influence the Hindus are resuming their ancient sway. And the tendency of the leading castes in modern times is more

- neipal industries and manufactures. towards trade as a means of accumulating money than towards crafts-manship. So while the city is growing, and must from its position continue to grow in commercial importance, it is doubtful whether the arts by which it is historically known are equally flourishing.

The jewelry of Delhi was a favourite theme of the early European travellers who visited it. There is now but little scope for the sumptuous extravagances of which they wrote, such as the pencock throne and similar works: but the tradition remains, and one of the special excellences of the Delhi jeweller is still his consumnate skill in mounting and arranging gems, sometimes of great price, but also often of little intrinsic value, so as to produce the greatest amount of artistic contrast, richness and variety. In these days this branch of the art once practised on a large and costly scale is confined to smaller articles of adornment. The throne, the belt, the slipper, the spear, the sword, the elephant houdah and good are but seldom incrusted with gold, enamels and jewels as formerly; and most Anglo-Indians know Delhi jewelry as an assortment of lockets, rings, crosses, bracelets and necklaces, as European in their details as in their purpose. Articles made for wealthy natives, even when they preserve traditional forms, are growing noticeably neater in execution, with a neatness that counts for nothing as ari, and more timid in design, while there is less variety of pattern than formerly. European designs are growing popular, especially among those untive ladies who have come under the influence of missionaries, or indeed under any educational infinence.

The work now produced for native courts is but seldom seen by Europeans, and it is impossible to form a correct estimate of its value. There is no doubt that many costly articles are made, and that Delhi workmen are frequently employed at distant places resetting and repairing such objects.

The telegraph and the modern facilities for travel have brought the precious stone trade of the world together in a way that is surprising to those unfamiliar with its workings. It is now, as always, a somewhat secret branch of commerce. German Jews, trained in Paris, are perhaps the most prominent and leading dealers. There is scarcely a wedding or an accession affording an opportunity for the sale of precious stones that is not telegraphed to Paris, London, St. Petersburgh, Amsterdam, Berlin and Vienna. Delhi and the rest of India are now included in this secret syndicate, and are periodically visited by dealers who come and go unnoticed; so that Tavernier was but the forerunner of a succession of jewel merchants. For pearls, Bombay is a great market; but even there, one of the leaders of the trade, Panniah Lall, is a Delhi man. In coloured stones this city has still a considerable trade, and the greater part of the valuable find of sapphires in the Cashmere territory has been absorbed by the Delhi jewellers. Most of these men are in the hands of bankers, or perhaps more correctly they are the agents of bankers.

The banker of the East, it is unnecessary to remark, adheres to the practices of the guild that are comparatively neglected by the great money-dealers of Europe, and counts jewels among his means of trade and not merely as objects to be kept in a safe. The name of the actual workman never appears in connection with the more costly articles of Dehli production. Some of the most skilful are said to be men of extravagant habits, and all are entirely in the hands of the dealers, who keep them practically enslaved by a system of advances. This indeed is the case in most Indian handierafts, and the astute Hindu-dealer resembles the London tradesman in his efforts to efface the maker of the goods he sells, and to pose as the actual producer. Even miniature painting on ivory, which would be supposed to be an art where the name of the artist is absolutely essential.

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Jewelry.

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is said to be in many cases produced by quite other men than those who sign the pictures.

Enamelling on gold as an accessory in jewelry is here practised, and it is not easy to distinguish the best Delhi work from that of Jeypore.

It is impossible to give any trustworthy figures as to the value of articles that might be classed as jewelry. But it must be considerable, since there are Delhi jewellers, i.e., tradesmen who sell Delhi wares, in every large town.

As to the objects produced, there is scarcely anything called jewelry that cannot be imitated at Delhi; and the continual passage of tourists has created a demand for several varieties of native work not strictly belonging to the locality, as well as for articles of English style. Massive rings with one precious stone set in strong open work, and almost as well finished as those in a Bond Street window, are now as frequent as the rings with several stones which are perhaps more like the true Delhi notion. Many of these are tastefully arranged and skilfully mounted. The embossed silver work of Madras, with Dravidian figures in relief, known as Swami jewelry, is more coarsely imitated. In the best Madras examples the figures are entirely handworked, but they are often made at Delhi by die-stamping, afterwards chased. Filigrain has always been used as an accessory to more solid work, and now the lightness of Genoese or Cuttack articles is sometimes attempted. and silver gilt wire woven into a kind of matting pattern is applied to belts and bracelets. All the varieties of watch chain are imitated, and some adaptations of native chains have been done. The patterns of necklaces worn in the hills are now regularly wrought at Dehli. In gold, suites of amethyst, gold framework topaz, turquoise and other stones are made. The is sometimes twisted or of babúl work. This last is one of the oldest and most characteristic forms. The name is taken from the pretty and sweetly-scented flower of the babul or kikar (Acacia Arabica) which is a ball of delicate yellow filaments. It is also called khár-dar, or thorn-Convex forms, as the centres of brooches, the fringing balls set round miniatures, &c., are studded over with the minute gold points, each of which, with a patience and delicacy of hand that defy European imitation, is separately soldered to the thin plate base. Good, soft gold alone is used for The articles are the points, while the base is of slightly inferior metal. finished by being placed into a sharply acid bath, which produces a clear, mat-gold bloom, that does not long survive wear and tear. Major McMahon says that various eastes were ornaments of this sort before its suitability for A bolder form of similar work objects of English use came to notice. bur. (The cal on the is called gokru, and is based apparently of mediæval European war-fare. A ball trap of Indian and also studded with spikes thrown to impede the progress of cavalry is also called a gokru.) This is worn by Jat men as an earring, and the same treatment is applied to women's bracelet. Among other patterns produced by soldering small details on a base may be mentioned a rose pattern of minute flowers. This is common all over India, but is perhaps most perfectly done in the red-stained gold ornaments of Burmah. The miniature paintings of Delhi are frequently set in gold cable twist patterns as bracelets, necklets and brooches. Small plaques of Pertabgarh enamel, a semi-translucent green incrusted with tiny gold-chased patterns of figures and animals, are also, with true and false avanturine, mounted in a similar way. almost invariable feature of Delhi work is a thin shell of gold incrusted with better gold, or with stones of some kind and afterwards filled with hard The enamel work is often spoiled by being done on gold too thin to withstand without distortion the heat of the enamel fire.

Another speciality of Delhi is the incrustation of jade, with patterns of which the stem work is in gold and the leaves and flowers in garnets, rubies, diamonds, &c. For examples of the best of older work we must now go to the great European collections, where are objects of a size and beauty now seldom met with in India. The mouthpicees of hookahs, the hilts of swords and daggers, the heads of walking-eanes, and the enrious crutch-like handle of the gesain's or byragi's staff, also called a byragi, are, with lockets, and brooches for Enlish wear, the usual application of this costly and beautiful Each individual splinter of ruby or diamond may not be intrinsically worth very much, but the effect of such work as a whole is often very rich. The murassia kar or jewel-setter was formerly often called upon to set stones, so that they could be sewn into jewelled cloths. For this purpose, as when the stone was to be inernsted upon another, as with minute diamonds or pearls on large garnets, a common Delhi form, or on jade, he works with gold foil and a series of small chisel-like tools and fine agate burnishers. The open work claw-settings which leave the underside of a stone clear, have been copied from European work. There is no dodge of the European jeweller, such as tinted foil backing for inferior stones or fitting two splints of stone to form one, that is not known to the Delhi workmen. These and many other devices they have not learned from Europe, for they are tricks of the trade common to all countries. It is easy to find fault with a certain quality of flimsiness and sometimes gaudiness in the articles unfolded day by day in hotels and dak bungalows all over the country and exposed for sale in shops. But now-a-days people will not pay a sufficient price for good work. The conditions of the trade, too, would seem to be fatal to the production of such masterpieces as we read of and sometimes find. In former times a good workman with his family was dependent on the court or on some wealthy noble. He was often harshly treated, and though he was never suffered to want, he seldom received what would now be considered a fair equivalent for his labour. But he was provided for whether he worked or played, and plied his task with a leisurely consideration and care which is now impossible. The wonder is rather, when the rapacity and also the expenses of the dealer or middleman are taken into consideration, that so fair a value is given for the money spent on Delhi jewelry.

Turning from jewelry proper to silversmiths' work of the larger Silversmiths' work. sort, it is doubtful whether so much is now done as formerly, and it would seem that Europeans who spend much money on race and other prize cups and similar wares from England, are searcely aware of the powers of native workmen. A large and bold treatment of silver is a tradition of Indian work, but it is only now coming into favour among the silversmiths of Europe and America. The artistic roughly-ehiselled silver of Messrs. Tiffany of New York, which was reckoned a novelty, has some points in common with Indian work, especially in that it was not like most European work, teased with a uniform high finish. Large hookahs chased and perforated with elaborate garniture of open work, chillum covers, and chains with pendant fishes and other funciful breloques. abkhoras or drinking vessels for wealthy Muhammadans, spice-boxes or pandans similar to the familiar copper pandan, models of eooking pots for wedding presents, and occasionally for wealthy Hindus such sacrificial wares as the Nandigan or bull of Shiva with a canopied arrangement for dropping Ganges water on it in worship, or the argha, an oval patera that represents the female energy, are the principal objects now made. The chatera or metal-chaser carries on his trade separately from the smith, who, like the blacksmith of the Siálkot and Guirát damaseened work, confines himself to forging and shaping. Beaten foliage like

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Silversmiths' work.

that of Cutch is wrought, and the superficial engraving of Fingles silver plate is skilfully imitated.

No workmen are more careful than Indian gold and silversmiths in the handling of the precious metals. As they use no benefice, it is filings cannot be preserved, as in English shops, in a leather agree fitted to a drawer; but they file on a wooden standard set in a large dish, and their small crucibles for casting are most carefully handled. Yet is pays some people to buy their ashes and sweepings for the sake of such gold and silver as they may yield. The leading silversmith of built presents his to the poor of his easte, and a respectable sum is annually extracted from the refuse of his shop. It is not often that beaten silver work of the boldest kind is seen in process of excention. That is to say the embossed plates of a silver howdah, the large cartonche-shaped pendants of the necklaces with which the elephant is adorned, the state chairs made for Rájás and chiefs, and similar objects. It is impossible not to admire the boldness with which the metal is handled in many of these works, but it must be admitted that when new they are not free from a touch of vulgarity.

The steps of gradation from such work to the ornaments in common use are really very slight. There is no difference in the processes or took, and the silversmith who shapes the chaunk for a native lady's head does not give it much higher finish than the elephant pendant receives. In this, as in the goldsmith's neater craft, the die or thappa is greatly used with a notable economy of labour. The ornament represents in many cases merely so much money, and neither the owner nor the maker, who is usually as much shroff or money-lender as eraftsman, cares greatly about its form. Many of the forms, however, are beautiful, and few are entirely without interest. At Delhi a large variety is made, because the women of Rajputana, as well as those from the nearer districts, are now enstances.

Mock jewelry.

Large quantities of sham jewelry made of brass, coloured glass, and plata glass with tinted foil behind it, are sold. These preserve the native forms of earrings, bracelets, and head ornaments, and are often very pretty. Year by year, however, a larger number of European imitations are imported; notably large brass beads in open work rudely counterfeiting filigrain. It is not always easy to say in such things where Germany or Birmingham ends and Delhi begins, for the stamped tinsel settings are combined with wire, silk and beads in the most ingenious way, till the completed ornament resembles those made in good materials of real native work. There is no affectation, however, about the ornaments cast in zine for very past people, where the workmanship, though following the forms of silver and gold, is rough and costless as the material. A considerable amount of taste is displayed in the stringing and arrangement of small coloured glass beads. From one shop the writer purchased 32 necklaces of different patterns, some in beads, others made of seeds and suitable for faqira, dear others of lac, coated with yellow foil with coins, also in lac, langing to them, and others in wood. No two were alike, and the price asked for the 32 P.14 two rupees. To a native purchaser it would have been less. Nowhere class can so much bravery be bought at so cheap a rate; and from the provents quoted by Dr. Fallon about Dellii dandyism, it would appear that cheap finery is a 'note' of the place.

Brass and copperware. The coppersmiths are no less skilful than the workers in silver. In the Lahore and other copper bazars, visitors are invariably offered real Delist degchis; and most of the smiths from other places admit that they are not so skilful with the hammer and stake (sandán) as those at Italis. In shaping a circular vessel of changing diameter they find it necessary to solder pieces on; while a good Delhi coppersmith shapes the whole within

joint from one piece Nests (ganj) of degehis, with cleanly defined edges fitting closely into each other, are the usual articles made, and they are often admirable specimens of plain hammer work. Brass articles are tastefully ornamented by the chatera with foliage in low relief. There is a considerable production too of small fantastic toys in brass, roughly made, but often ingenious. The native merry-go-round seen at melas furnishes one model, and railway trains, raths, grotesque figures and toy vessels of all sorts are also The best Hindu sacrificial brass wares come from Benares, Muttra and Brindaban, but many are now made at Delhi. Small boxes of brass with lids perforated in foliated patterns and furnished with a false lid in which a small mirror is fixed, are favourite possessions of native ladies, who use them to keep cardamoms or small articles of adornment. These are made in great numbers and find their way into Rajputana as well as all over the Punjab. The trade in brass small wares, however, is not likely to. increase very largely, on account of the competition of German articles of a similar kind which are now imported in great numbers. The wholesale rates at which these are delivered to dealers are almost inercilibly low. There is a special fabrication of things for this market, and the most important condition is that they shall cost the importer very little. When serviceable umbrellas are supplied at ten shillings a dozen, it may be imagined that stamped tin' and brass boxes, pocket mirrors, beads, pocket knives, buttons, and other varieties of German small wares which are sold by pedlars sitting in the streets of all large towns and at all fairs and country side gatherings, are about the most minute and least costly objects known in modern trade. A great part of these things are in plain English mere rubbish, and the wonder is that they find purchasers at any price. The workmen of Delli, it must be confessed, are themselves apt at this sort of trade, and it would occupy much space to enumerate the trivialities of local production exposed for sale in the Chamlai Chauk.

Punnah or tin foil is made here, and tinted sometimes with coloured varnish; it serves as gold tinsel. A surface of wood covered with this material and then painted on in foliated patterns used to be a favourite form of decoration for doors, some of which are to be found in the fine old havelis in the older parts of the city. German orsidue, however, is made in so many forms, and imported at so cheap a rate, that this trade is scarcely likely to survive.

Imported plate and common glass are silvered in the old style with merenry and tin foil, and the edges are often bevelled and ent by the workmen with the aid of corundam powder. Many of these looking glasses are mounted in a gandy style with borders of painted glass, and an arrangement by which they stand at an angle or fold flat. Glass bangles are said to be made. They are certainly sold in large quantities.

Lac bangles incrusted with spangles in stamped or sidue and with beads are made in large numbers. Some are coated with tin, ground and applied as a paint and then covered with a tinted varnish, a method of obtaining a metallic glimmer through colour which is characteristic of many Indian forms of decoration.

Ivory-carving is practised by only one or two artisans. It is impossible to praise the camels, elephants, bullock raths and figures here made. They are not equal to the Murshedabad work. Combs, paper-knives and other small objects, often ornamented with the figure of a bird or perforated in geometric open work patterns, like those of Amritsar, are also made. But the art cannot be said to flourish.

Neither is wood carving a prosperous or popular business. There are some particularly fine examples of old doors and doorways in the city, but

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Tin foil.

Mirrors, &c.

Lac bangles.

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Wood-carring.

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nothing of any importance is now produced. It has been demonstrated however by Col. Montgomery Hunter that, supposing a demonstrating arise, there are curvers carable of rivaling the sid work. This gentlemen had the force and curven mainson of a large form frequent united like experimtendence. The result was suppossful, but the completed work had more of stone than wood treatment.

Sitte-marity.

Stone carring is not reast entendirely quantied, but there are name. rous examples of modern work which show a light average of earliers. The spendiels or mitedia of diverselys seem to be she invente field for the stone-curver's em. The felicle, as in all motern with is encessively spare and flowing in line, and somewhat they in detally exampting in this respect with the simpler and more rigid lines and sometim ferms of the cruoment of the fest periods.

Plusier wirk.

In the open course and larger rooms of the bester close of native house the plicators and armies are writing in places with which through late in design, is pretty and material in ensembles. The create description which has taken place of late peops in the off misself smill is similarly by the working themselves to the introloxich of the very different medial of treating mail-surfaces accessors for our large Doglish buildings, where immense stretches of wall have to be expered with plaster as estimitely as possible. A skilled medianen will tell you that any cooky can beam in die krode morker and as a monter of foot the greator park of the mon empliyed by the Public Works Department are only from neil lobourers and very few of them are capable of working our such details as the penienties of ranks or the folioted placeters and midnife of the armies which are miversal in the work of filty years ago. Even in English Amgalows built at that period, the native inner, through evidently II or case in our was, remargular domestic harms, looke our in quaint your ling on the wills and in emimented mantel eiger. The demok and the mirer section herem here now effectually checked this earl the roy misted has leasned here to combine the more and least dumble planter with ever wrought in India, with yan, addaria bidecames.

Delli progisia

Dellizotesp. as purchased and unlessions by Europeas, is a unit el reconi origin. For many years large fore or coordeline for newly domestic use, fore of a smaller size for the pickles and preserves which are specialities of Deblit and small damite or inkerends, have been upde in व मार्ग्याव काम की प्राप्तिकोंक कामराक्ष्ये मांक्षेत्र व व्योधक. There मान्य का सुक्षांसामा की the wire in the Punjah Exhibition of 1894, and no notice was when at it ly Europeans.

In 1869, the writer passing through Dalhi, purchased a number of these jors and took them to the London Enhithtin of 1870, where their fine texture of glaze, a rough, drok-egg-like crotting, was admired by countiescure, actably by the late Mr. Fortuny, a calcimated Spanish painter, then visiting England. (One of these untiles by the way happened to be marked mortal in the naive name for a jar, and was afterwards deeribei en a museum label as coming from Minalán, a pon en the Browse

Since that time new forms have been suggested to the potters. There gre mostly flower vases, eliqule, eurabie, and similar decornive shapes of Indian or Persian chammer. As this confloation of postery is entirely new to this pure of India, there are no emiliators to be interfered with Lark of enterprise and ignorance of the possibilities of the art have present in from being largely developed. Little has been done to mentile demand. and nething to anticipate or stimulate it. The maximum have been drugged into notice with apparent relutance, and do not estilly same

opportunities of making money. Bhola is the best known of the Delhi potters. Another member of the family was some years since attracted to Jeypore, and works in connection with the School of Artthere, where pottery similar as to "paste" or body and glaze, but decorated with more skill, is produced.

The ware, from the fact of the "paste" being an artificial one, i.e., compounded of pounded stone and gum, and not a natural clay, has to be made in moulds, and cannot be freely handled and made in great variety

of form on the wheel.

It is curious that so little has been done to improve the paste, as true China clay is found not far from Delhi, and is used habitually by the gold and silversmiths for their crucibles. Mr. Mallet of the Geological Survey writes: "Kaolin is obtained at Kusseempur near Delhi from a decomposed granite. The rock is elutriated, and the washed Kaolin made up into small eakes which are chiefly used for white-washing. The blue and white Delhi pottery is probably made from the same material." This surmise is a natural one, since China clay, similarly procured and prepared, is used in Europe and China for pottery. But the Delhi pottery, in slaekly burnt samples, is almost pure sand, and can be rubbed into holes with the finger nail where the glaze does not hold it toeather. A mixture of the Kaolin with the pounded stone ought to result, if it were sufficiently fired, in a good porcelain. As it is in some of the best pieces, the "body", is semi-translucent. Blue and a pale-green are the colours used for decoration. The patterns are poor in design, and though the general air of the product is delicate and pretty, it has a somewhat siekly quality, happily described by a connoisseur as "anæmic" when compared with the fulness of colour and . richness of pattern of Multán ware.

The potters of the latter place, it may be noted, are Muhammadans, and of very different social standing from the kumbhar. The Delhi potters

are Hindus, and probably of the ordinary kumbhar or potter caste.

In unglazed earthen pottery, there is not much to note. times Delhi produces, perhaps a larger variety than is seen elsewhere of those grotesque toys and figurines, which periodically call forth the invention of the porter and notably add to his income. Here, indeed, as the eity is regarded as a place of pleasure, their sale goes on all the year round. It is at fair times that caricature portraits in burnt clay, rudely painted, are produced; and stories are told of too sensitive civil officers making the potters' fortunes by buying up libellous representations of their features This toy trade, popular all over India, is the root from which the remarkable figure modelling of the North-West Provinces has grown.

A 'skilful toy-maker, Hera Singh, produces models of snakes in terra- Models of snakes. cotta, which are earefully coloured from the plates in Sir Joseph Fayrer's Thanatophidia and other works, and sold to civil officers for use in tahsil offices as a help towards the identification of snakes for the destruction of which rewards are offered by the Government. The models are beautifully,

made and coloured. Another recent trade, which seems likely to be popular in its humble way, is basket-making. Tiffin baskets, work and tea-tables, chairs and other articles, are now made in split bamboo with bands of coloured splints. The work is fairly neat and strong. The basket-makers call themselves Rájpúts; but as this is the answer most Hindus of low degree give when, asked to what easte they belong, it need not be taken very seriously. Cane is not used, and the Chinese basket-maker, who gets the best work of Calcutta and Bombay, does not compete with local labour.

Among new trades may also be mentioned the growing use of made tin ware. A great number of tin-lined packing cases are

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Delhi porcelain.

Egenter mola

Basket-making.

Tin working.

The rapid development of the wheat trade has given a great impetus to the weaving of gunny bags—a trade which is entirely new and sternly utilitarian in character.

In popular estimation Delhi stands pre-eminent for its lighter und

more decorative manufactures, such as jewelry and embroidery.

The embroidery in which gold and silver thread are used is commercially the most important. True khimkhab, like that of Benares and Ahmedabad in which gold and silver threads, are loom-wrought, is not made, the closest approach to it in the whole of the Punjab being the gold and silk-weaving of Multan and Bahawalpur, and the gold and silk beltweaving on a stout warp of Amritsar. According to Mr. Stogdon, C.S., who furnished some valuable and trustworthy notes on the gold and silver wire industries of Delhi to the Report of the Internal Trade of the Punjab, 1881-82, it is calculated that about 50,000 souls are employed here in this and its kindred trades, and that about 327,950 miles of silver and silver-gilt wire are annually produced. Much of this is used for covering silk thread with silver or gold, when it is called white or yellow kalabatún. The purity of the metals used, which in former times, especially at Lahore, was the subject of stringent regulation and surveillance both on the part of Governments and the guilds of wire-drawers, is now necessarily left to the exigencies of a trade in which cheapness is yearly growing a more essential A sort of assay, however, is consequent on the demand of the Municipality for octroi duty. Mr. Stogdon thus describes this part of the business: "The Municipal Committee have established an octroi station To this station the byopáris bring their raw material to be melted down, and the amount of duty payable by them depends on the quality of the ingot they intend to turn out. The scale is as follows: Gold kandala, Re. 1-8 per ingot of 75 tolas; silver kandala, Re. 1-4 ditto; sham gold, 8 annas per ingot of 75 tolas; ditto silver, 4 annas; kandala mel (half silver half copper) 12 annas per ingot; silver wire, three pie per tola. The byopari presents his silver and copper to be weighed, and on payment of the duty a receipt is granted to him. He then takes his metal into the station and melts it down in an earthern crucible, ealled kathála, in one of the numerous compartments set aside for the purpose. From the crucible he pours it into an iron mould called reya. The bar or ingot of silver and copper when thus melted down is called gulli. If it is intended to work gold leaf into it, it is about 8 inches long by 1½ inches square. The gulli is then made over to the kandala kash."

It is scarcely worth while here to follow Mr. Stogdon or Mr. Baden-Powell, through a careful description of the processes by which this ingot is first gilded and subsequently drawn into wire. The difference between wire-drawing in England and India lies after all in the lack of machinery in the latter country. There is, however, wonderful delicacy of hand, and skill that can only be attained by long years of practice in some of the processes. The flattening of a row of slender wires with a hammer as they are drawn over a tiny steel anvil, into minute ribbons of equal width, is one of those feats of manual dexterity, the exceeding skilfulness of which a bystander can only realise by an attempt to imitate it. Similarly nothing can look easier than the covering of thread with these minute ribbons. The thread hangs from a hook in the eeiling and is wound on an iron spindle. The workman gives the spindle a quick twirling motion by passing it rapidly under the palm of his hand over a sort of greave that covers his thigh; while the thread is . rapidly spinning, the gilt wire is applied. The workman's hand, accompanied by a glistening streak of gold, travels rapidly upwards with

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Occupations, Industries and Commerce.

Gold and silver embroidery.

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Industries and Commerce. Gold and silver embroidery.

no apparent effort, but it leaves the thread perfectly covered with gold evenly coiled; no silk showing and no uneven overlapping. The exceeding tenuity to which gilded silver can be drawn out and yet retain an unbroken surface of gold has been continually dwelt upon in all accounts of wire-drawing. It does not pay to draw out tinsel so fine. Silver unfortunately will bear the admixture of a considerable quantity of copper without losing colour to ordinary eyes; and Delhi kalabatún contains often more copper then the purchaser bargained for. The various qualities of gold thread are discriminated at a glance with perfect accuracy by experts. I have often failed to assort a series of skins according to their value—a task which is easy to any gold embroiderer. It is evident from a tradition mentioned in Mr. Griffiths' catalogue of Bombay contributions to the Calcutta International Exhibition, 1884, that the manufacture of gold thread is of some standing. Mr. Griffiths writes: "Ahmedabad and Surat workers state that their ancestors came from Champaner, and that the craft was originally carried on by Musalmans at Debli and Agra, under the patronage of the Mughal Government. A tradition is current that a goldsmith from Champaner went to Delhi and happened to see gold and silver thread, and wanted to learn the art, but could get no information. Feigning blindness he got himself employment as a cooly to hammer the bars of silver. There he learned the art of gilding and drawing wire to the required thinness. He afterwards opened a workshop in his native town, whence the process was carried to Ahmadabad, Paithan in the Nizam's territory, Surat, Yeola, Poona, and Bombay." This story is told, mutatis mutandis, of nearly every skilled handicraft in existence, but it seems to show that the art was unknown in the rich Hindu region of Guzerat.

The gold thread work of Gulburga further south was also Muhammadan. So it appears likely that the early Hindu civilization, concerning the splendours of which so much has been written, was innocent of golden tissues.

Embroidery on leather for shoes has been mentioned as one of the uses to which gilt thread is put. But this is only one of many uses. As gold thread is not easily worked on the needle, it is usually laid on the surface of the cloths to be ornamented and tacked down at intervals with a stitch of silk through the fabric. To do this conveniently so that one hand is free to pass the reel on which the gilt thread is wound, while the other stitches it down, a frame is necessary; henco gold embroidery is called karchob, frame work. But this name seems to be used to distinguish more particularly the large embossed work familiar in State elephant jhools, masnads and the like. The finest examples of this work must be sought for in native States and in European museums, and it is but seldom that large and important pieces are now wrought. In eases where the whole of the field is to be covered with gold work, a stout cotton cloth is stretched on the frame. On this the design is drawn by the nagquish, and the parts to be raised are worked over with thick, soft cotton, dyed yellow, passed on the surface from a reel, and stitched down at each passing with ordinary sewing thread. The centre veins of leaves and other forms are marked with stitching, and a kind of modelled surface is thus produced in thick cotton thread. Over these forms the gold and silver thread is laid, their lines following sometimes those of the cotton underlay and sometimes going in opposite directions. For the grounds, varieties of basket-work and herring-bone stitches are adopted; spangles and lines of twisted wire sulma are introduced to mark and relievo the leading lines of the pattern. Several men work at once on these fabrics, and they are not so long in execution as this description may seem to indicate. The sheen of the gold threads interlaced in different directions as they cross over raised surfaces,

produces a brilliant and in large pieces a splendid effect. In cases where coloured silk velvet is bordered with raised gold embroidery of this kind, the velvet is sewn on strong cotton cloth, and during the work the parts to be left plain are kept carefully covered up. In the same way caps, cushions, tea cosies and other trifles are wrought; but as relief is not always necessary as in large throne cloths, elephant housings and the like, the forms are not always embossed in cotton.

A pretty variety of gold embroidery which has become popular of late years is called mina work, because of a slight resemblance to cloisonné enamel. The outlines of foliage are done in gilt thread, but the leaves and flowers in brightly coloured silk. On a suitable ground this work is very charming. Table covers, panels for sereens, mantel-piece borders and ornaments for brackets seem to be the favourite objects. It must be admitted that Bombay and Sindh run Delhi pretty close in bharat kâm (filled in work), as they call karchob; but the largest Bombay-maker, Daudbhay in the Kalbaderi road, "employs a large number of workmen who are principally from Delhi." Since the world of fashion has decreed that gold and silver embroidery, for many years considered theatrical and pretentious, is only picturesque and beautiful, some excellent work has been produced for ladies' dresses. The shapes of these change so quickly in the western world, however, that the Delhi artizan has searcely completed a skirt or a dress front when it is hopelessly out of fashion and useless.

Strange forms of byegone periods are still adhered to, such as the burnous opera-cloak and loosely-fitting jackets with open sleeves. Borders and trimmings it is being discovered are a safer field for the exercise of the art. A very dainty sort of embroidery is worked on net, and in this case the gold thread is not passed but run through. Gold sprays are also wrought on white muslin jandáni, with an effect similar to that of

the well known Lucknow work.

The variety of embroidered caps worked for the better classes of natives in real gold and silk, and for those of lower degree in tinsel, is beyond enumeration. Many shops are devoted exclusively to the sale of caps. Nauteh-women's dresses are often triumplis of gaudy and gilded broidery. Weddings consume a large amount of finery, and on holidays

and at fairs gilt lace, real or false, makes all the children gay.

A large quantity of gold and silver thread is used by the nechaband in the manufacture of hooka snakes and pipes. This is prettily variegated with coloured silk, and no small skill and neatness are displayed in their plaiting. The patua or patoti makers work up a great deal in stringing necklaces, head ornaments and bracelets together, the ties being usually in gilt thread. In the parandas or queue terminations for the three long tails of hair affected by native ladies, pretty combinations of gilt thread with brightly coloured silk are produced. The paranda is also frequently made in embossed silver. The tassels of the azarband, the universally worn pyjama string of silk, are frequently costly arrangements in kalabatún, which is also worked into a great variety of fringes for decorative purposes. Some of this is wrought on a tiny loom, the heddles of which are perforated cards that can be grasped and turned in one hand. One sort of fringe of flattened gilt wire is worked west-wise in a mineature loom into a warp of silk, beyond which the loops of wire are carried and secured round an iron L-shaped hook attached to the weaver's waist. When the loop is full the wires are released and eut open. A loose fringe of glistening gold is thus bordered by a woven hem of silk. There is no end to the variety of braiding and edging made. The invariable practice seems to be to braid by hand, holding the eard taut to an iron hook on a small standard fixed on a

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Gold and silver embroidery.

Silk embroidery.

pedestal, which is very frequently the richly carved base of one of the enriched pillars common in the old buildings of Delhi.

Gold lace proper is not now, Mr. Stogdon writes, so much used as before the Mutiny. "At present Husain Bakhsh and his son Aziz Bakhsh are the only manufacturers in Delhi." The machine used is an exceedingly neat contrivance, an elaborate loom in miniature, the heddle strings converging to a sort of pedal board, like that of an organ on a minute scale. The great toe, which in the native foot is flexible and free in movement, picks out and depresses each heddle in turn with unerring precision. This quadrumanous facility of grasp is of the greatest use in silk-winding, braiding, and gilt cord-making, the great toe being constantly used to hold the work.

Silk embroidery is of several kinds. A long loose stitch in white filoselle, worked in pine or other forms on grey, blue, and other colours of Cashmere (English), is one of the commonest. Shawls and articles of female attire are the usual forms, but it is not now fashionable. The woollen fabrics of Cashmere and Amritsar are also decorated with silk embroidery. This is frame work in all cases. Satin of European make is coming into increased use for silk embroidery, and some of the recent patterns, notably one counterfeiting the markings in peacocks' feathers, are brilliant and effective. As a rule, however, it can scarcely be said that this gay and attractive work is good or even tolerable art when judged by any serious standard. There seems to be a touch of flimsiness in most Delhi work, and this characteristic is not likely to be cured by the determination of the public on one hand to pay cheap prices and of the dealer on the other to secure large profits.

Tinsel printing.

Some cotton-printing is done of no remarkable quality. Silver tinselprinting on Turkey red muslin, salu, is made in quantities for weddings,

&c., but it is inferior to that of Kangra and Rohtak.

Delhi-painting.

The miniature painting of Delhi has grown from the practice of illuminating costly M.S. books, introduced from Persia, and greatly in favour at the Mughal court in its palmy days The names of calligraphers of the 13th century still survive in Persia, though little remains that can be confidently attributed to them. During the 16th and 17th centuries the art, which from the manner of its growth and fostering, as well as from the costly splendour of its finest examples, has some right to be called a Royal one, flourished in India. The catholic spirit that led the great Akbar to have Sanserit epics translated into Persian, inclined him to look favourably on the limner's art, though it is opposed to Muhammadan religious canons. Abul Fazl in the Ain-i-dkbari makes the monarch say :- "There are many that hate painting, but such men I dislike. It appears to me as if a painter had quite peculiar means of recognising God; for in sketching anything that has life, and in devising its limbs one after the other, he must come to feel that he cannot bestow individuality upon his work, and is forced to think of God, the only giver of life, and will thus increase in knowledge."

The courtly author may be responsible for the form of this utterance, but there can be no doubt about the spirit in which the Emperor regarded the liberal arts. It is true that there are no representations of living figures in Muhammadan architecture, excepting in the altogether abnormal pottery decorations of the north front of Lahore Fort; but it is clear that the portrait limner was encouraged in the practice of his art. There is scarcely an art collection in existence that does not include examples of Perso-Indian pictures. Mr. W. W. Hunter writes: "The Royal Library at Windsor contains the finest examples in this bye-path of art. A noble manuscript of the Sháh Jahán Nameh, purchased in Oudh for £1,200 in the last century, and now in possession of Her Majesty, will amply repay a visit." The

house of Firmin Didot of Paris, however, possessed perhaps the largest and most complete collection of "examples of this bye-path" which is in fact a broad highway, leading, as has been demonstrated in Enrope, to the highest achievements of pictorial art. M. Ambroise, Firmin Didot, and M. P. Barty exhibited in the retrospective department of the Paris Exhibition of 1878, works which it would now be difficult to match in Persia or India. Recently several leaves of a superb Shah Nameh, each leaf a picture full of most elaborate and perfectly wrought detail, have been acquired for the South Kensington Museum by Mr. Purden Clarke. These pictures contain a complete exposition of the architectural forms of Samarcand and Persia. Many similar treasures are still in the possession of native Princes and others belong to wealthy families. The production of such work, notwithstanding its minuteness and finish, must have been immense; for Albert de Mandelso records that Akbar was credited with the possession of 24,000 manuscripts richly bound. Many of these, as invariably in the case of the Kuran, were probably M.S. illuminated with ornaments merely in gold and colour. But many contained pictures, and one in the Lahore Museum marked as having belonged to Akbar seems to have been an exposition of the miracles in the Bible. In later times an English traveller speaks of the Delhi artists as excelling in licentious subjects, a line that is followed in secret to this day.

There is no record of the introduction of the practice of painting on ivory. This was probably modern, and imitated from the miniatures which with our grandfathers took the place of the photograph of to-day. It is known that an English miniaturist, one of the earliest members of the Royal Academy, and a contemporary of Sir Joshua Reynolds—Mr. Ozias Humfrey—spent some years in India, and it is not unlikely that his work was copied. This is only a surmise, but it is certain that the material used in the older work was invariably fine grey paper, like that known as Cashmere paper. The "manner" of the modern Delhi miniature, excepting when it is copied from a photograph, is identical with that of the old portfolio picture or the book illumination. Water colour alone is used, and the head is drawn full front (do chashm,) two-eyed, or in profile (yek chashm) one-eyed. There is, it need scarcely be remarked, no indigenous

There are "Delhi painters" in Calcutta and Bombay, and a large amount of work is annually sold. Pictures of the chief public buildings of Northern India are used to embellish carved ebony caskets. Others of small size are set in gold and sold as jewelry. Books and frames filled with a series of portraits of the Mughal dynasties are favourite subjects. Akbar II in durbar is frequently repeated, with a British officer who keeps his cocked hat on in the royal presence. The beauties of the court are also drawn, and it is noticeable that the Persian artist (those of Delhi claim Persian descent) paints the light-coloured Persian complexion and ignores the dusky hues of India. An exception is made in favour of Ranjít Singh, who is always represented as very dark. Sketches are extant which show that in former times the Delhi artists sketched from nature, but by dint of repeating the same heads over and over again, the features naturally become conventionalized and exaggerated, so that peculiarities like Alamgir's long nose and Nur Mahal's round face are at once recognisable. In the same way in the early days of ":Punch," before the multiplication of photographs put so many authentic studies from nature in the hands of the artist, familiar types were drawn and redrawn, nutil Lords Brougham, Derby and Disraeli were indicated with a very few strokes. A characteristic of all Indian

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Prices, Weights and Measures and Communications.

Delhi painting.

Chapter IV, C. work is that the craftsman learns to do one thing, and then goes on doing it for the rest of his life. The Delhi draughtsmen many years ago learnt how to draw English gentlemen and ladies and English soldiers, and to-day when left to himself the naqqash shows English people in the costume of sixty years ago. The lady, even in pictures of a railway station, wears a huge poke bonnet, large gigot sleeves, her waist is just under her arm, her skirts are short and tied sandals are on her feet. The British officer invariably wears a cocked hat and a high cravat, while the private soldier is crowned by the tall infantry shako with a large round knob atop; a head dress, by the way, which copied from our troops, is still worn by the retinues of some native princes.

> The introduction of photography is gradually bringing about a change in Delhi miniatures. The artists are ready to reproduce in colour any portrait that may be given to them; and, although sometimes the hardness of definition and a certain inky quality of the shadows of some photographs are intensified, much of their work in this line is The stiffness which used to be their unfailing characteristic admirable. is disappearing; landscape, a branch of art treated in indigenous art with stern conventionality, is attempted in a freer spirit, and it seems not unlikely that a new and perhaps more fresh and vital way of looking at nature may be adopted. Supposing this change to be desirable, a point that is not absolutely certain, the Delhi work of to-day is strongly marked by the faults of its qualities—the excessive delicacy and minuteness of handling, well expressed by their customary phrase, ek bál galm, a brush of a single hair, the quality of the handling being far more esteemed than sound drawing, good colour, or truth of effect.

> The ivory used for miniatures is prepared in the city, and the mounts, said to be of Aleppo glass, are also cut, rounded and polished here.

Course and nature of trade.

There are no statistics available for the general trade of the district, though the total value of the imports and exports of the Municipality of Delhi for the last few years and a brief notice of the trade of the city will be found in Chapter VI, and Table No. XXV gives particulars of the river traffic that passes through the district. exports and imports of food-grains have already been noticed at page 121. The trade of the district as a whole practically coincides with that of the city, its great central emporium, and cannot usefully be brought under separate description.

SECTION C.—PRICES, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES,

AND COMMUNICATIONS.

Prices, wages, rentrates, interest.

Table No. XXVI gives the retail bazar prices of commodities for the last twenty years. The wages of labour are shown in Table No. XXVII, and rent rates in Table No. XXI; but both sets of figures are probably of doubtful value. The Table at pages 139-40 shows the village prices for the last twenty years, as ascertained at the recent Settlement, together with the rates assumed for assessment purposes.

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Prices, Weights and Measures and Communications.

Prices, wages, rent-rates, interest.

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Statement of average prices in Delhi district.—(Continued.)

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Prices, Weights and Measures and Communications,

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The figures of Table No. XXXII give the average values of

Period.	Sale.	Mortgage.
1808-02 to 1873-74	21-12	21.14
1874-75 to 1877-74	45.6	29.4
1878-70 to 1841-82	64.2	44.9

land in rupces per acre shown in the margin for sale and mortgage; and Measures and but the quality of land and Communications. varies so enormously, and the value Prices, wages, rentreturned is so often fictitions, that but little reliance can be placed upon the figures. The Table on

page 142 shows the transactions in land for the last 14 years, as ascertained at the recent Settlement.

The weights used for ordinary purposes are according to the standard scale of mounds, sers and chattaks. Jewelry is weighed by the further common subdivisions chawal, ratti, musha, tola. As a measure of length the English yard of 36 inches is commonly used in the district. The natives have divided it into 16 parts called giralis, on the analogy of sixteen chittaks to the ser. There is another standard measure of length called the imartigay, 33 inches long. It is in general use for measuring houses.

The figures in the margin show the communications of the dis-

Communications.	Miles.
Navigable rivers	72
Railwaya	13
Metalled roads	116
Unmetalled roads	293

trict as returned in quinquennial Table I of the Administration Report for 1878-79, while Table XLVI shows the distances from place to place as authoritatively fixed for the purpose of calculating travelling allowance. Table No. XIX shows the area taken up by Government for communications in

the district. Delhi is unusually well provided with means of communication. There is a metalled road running throughout the whole length north and south, another metalled road running nearly due west from Delhi towards Rohtak, and the Rajputana Railway nearly bisects the country between this and the Mathra road to Ballabgarh. The Agra canal also brings up stone and takes down grain again to a small extent. All these lines converge on Delhi, and form a radiating system of communications on the north, north-west, west, south-west, and south, which leaves little to be desired.

The Jamná forms the eastern boundary of the Delhi district throughout, and is navigable for the whole of its course, but not much used. It separates Delhi district from the Mirath and Bulandshahr districts of the North-Western Provinces, forming thus a natural division between the two provinces. With the exception of the Jamna, there is no other important river in the district. The principal traffic on this river as stated in the Punjab Famine Report, 1879, is shown in Table No. XXV. There is but little navigation on it; there is a small wood depôt at Garhi Mehndipur, below Mamiarpur, and corn is sometimes brought down the river from Bigah, a large village in the north of Delhi, to Sunipat; but there is little else worth speaking of in the way of river-trade. The mooring places and terries and distances between them are shown at the top of page 143, following the downward course of the stream.

Chapter IV, C.

Prices, Weights rates, interest.

> Weights and Measures.

Communications,

Rivers.

Flalions.	Distance in miles.	llemarks.
Manisrpur Baghpat Dahlera Burarf Okhla Jaitpur Kalulpur Khidar Mahibalpur Khidar Majhabil Majhabil Majhabil	11 6 6 4 11 5 41 2 41 71 81 81	Ferry.

Besides the ferries and bridges of boats mentioned in the margin, there and Measures and is a Railway bridge at Delhi, with Communications. a road underneath for passengers and vehicles.

. Chapter IV, C.

Prices, Weights

The income of five years for the different ferries is given below:--

Ferry income.

And bridge of hours which is broken up . The rainy erason

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5	Okhla		4:6	170	263	243	276	20
ő	Jaitpur		465	215	4:0	325	205	33
7	Kiraoli	• • • •	330	160	5.0	220	133	27
8	Valishatpur	***	800	825	65.1	oto	244	45
8	Knhulpur Khidar	***	720	601	กะล	670	275	63
10	Mailiall	***	260	470	415	205	223	34
10 11	Shihjahinpur		207	215	215	650	20)	31
12	Chhánsa	***	0,410	2,600	2,130	1,593	1,0.0	3.47
	Total	•••	17,330	0,630	9,565	8,172	313,0	10,30

These ferries are almost always leased by anction, the contractors taking toll on passengers and traffic at rates the chief of which are the following:—

1Each person	•••	•••	•••	3 pies.
2 - , laden pony or do	akey	•••	•••	9 ,,
3.— "pony or donkey, n	rot laden	•••	•••	6,
4 —Two-ox waggon	***	•••	***	4 annas.
5.—Laden bullock or buffa		***	•••	l anna.
6.—Bullock or buffalo, not	laden	•••	•••	6 pies.
7.—Camel, laden	•••	•••	•••	4 annas.
8.— , unladen	•••	•••	•••	6 pies.
9.—Riding horse	•••	•••	•••	l anna.
10.—Pálki with 4 Kaliárs	***	•••	***	12 annas.
11.—Sheep and goats	•••	•••	•••	1 pic.
12.—For opening a bridge to	o let a vesse	pass	•••	8 annas.
13.—Ekkn, or bahli	•••	•••	***	4 "

. The Western Jamna Canal is not at present navigable, though Canal navigation. the scheme for its realignment will, among other alterations, make it so. Yet the Canal Department has done a good deal lately in the way of bringing up materials for the new bridges and canal bungalows, and taking down to the Delhi market the timber cut on the banks of the old line. The Agra Canal is navigable, and boats ply regularly up and down it; but from the official report of the Executive Engineer in charge it appears unlikely that the income from navigation tolls will ever be equal to the interest of the additional capital required to make the canal navigable.

Delhi is exceedingly well provided with railway communications, no less than three railways coming into the town it f; the East Indian Railway, Sindh, Punjab and Delhi Railway,

Railways.

Chapter IV, C. Prices, Weights and Measures and Communications.

Railways,

Roads.

Rajputana State Railway, all using the station belonging to the East Indian Railway. The two former are of the broad or five feet six gauge, and the latter the narrow or metre gauge. The two former cross the river at Dehli which is their terminus, whence the Rajputana State Railway traverses the district in the direction of Gurgaon for about twelve miles, with one station at Palam, about

ten miles from Dehli. The main lines of road are up and down the Grand Trunk Road, the Agra road, the Gurgáon road (for Rewári and Fírozpur Jhirka), and the Rohtak road for the due west parts. A cross-road line of importance comes into Sunipat tahsil from Kharkhaudah in Rohtak going eastward to Bághpat, and there is some little traffic along the Chhansah and Kabulpur Bángar line in the south. It would be good to have a public thoroughfare along the banks of the canal. Some of the heaviest traffic of the country lies in the cotton, gur, and grain carts of the canal villages of Sunipat. The cross-country lines of road in that part of the tahsil are often soft and rutty, very often cut up by wrong-headed water-courses that seem to think the more turns they can take the better, and being on a high level compared with the long-used hollowed-out lanes, frequently flood them more copiously than the fields intended for irrigation. If on the new line of the canal a good kacha road were laid down on one side, and if country traffic were not merely winked at but encouraged and developed, it would prove a real and great benefit. A very full list of the roads will be found in Appendix IX to Mr. Maconachie's Settlement Report. The table at the top of next page shows the principal roads in the district stage by stage, with the conveniences for travellers to be found at each stage. Beides the metalled roads, there are several important un-

metalled roads in the Dehli district:—

1] miles. Dehli towards Gurgáon via Baraich 12 Sarai Rahillah Khan to Najafgarh 9 Basant to Najafgarh 7 Nangloi Ját to Najafgarh 16 Azádpur to Bághpat -10 Between Gurgáon and Bahádurgarh viá Najafgarh 24 Najafgarh to Dahisrah 10 Nangloi Jat to Alipur 11 Sunipat to Maniarpur ferry ---38 Kharkandah via Thana Kalan to Baghpat 12 Sunipat to Baglipat ••• 29 Bádli to Zafarpur via Sunipat ...

There are also others the old imperial road but not now kept up. of less importance.

Besides the police rest-houses mentioned above, there is one at Najafgarh. The dak bungalows are completely furnished and provided with servants. The police bungalows are furnished, but

have no servants.

Post offices.

There are two lines of horse dak running from Dehli to Karnál and Rohtak. They are run by a contractor, Moti Ram, who is subsidized by Government. A railway, however, has recently been opened from Rewari to Hissar, and this passes within about 20 miles of Rohtak, whence, for the future, the mails will be delivered in Rohtak.

Routo.	Halting place.	Length of Stage.	Total length with District.	Rumanka.	Chapter IV, C. Prices, Weights and Measures and Communications.
Dehli to Karnál.	Alipur Itai Larenuli Panchi Güjarán Garhi Kalán	11 10 11 3 2	30 {	Police hungalow and encamping ground. Police hungalow and encamping ground. Police hungalow and encamping ground. Police hungalow. Police hungalow.	Roads.
Rai to Sunipal.	Sanipat	7	7	Police bungalow.	
Delhi to Gurgáon.	Mahrauli	11	14	Dak hungalow and encamping ground, also police bungalow at Adam Khan's tomb.	
Dehli to Visibra.	Chaukhandí Taláb Kishen Das Badarpur Faridábád Ajraundah Bailabgarh	3 2 6 6 7 4	27{	Encamping ground. Encamping ground. Police hungelow and encamping ground. Police hungelow and encamping ground. Encamping ground. Encamping ground. Police hungelow and encamping ground.	
Dehli to {	Nangloi Jút Mundhkah Tikri Kalan	11 3 3	17{	l'olice bungalow and encamping ground. Encamping ground. Encamping ground.	

Post offices.

There are Imperial Post Offices at Dehli (including one central and five sub-offices), Mahrauli, Arab Sarai, Ballabgarh, Chhansah, Faridabad, Alipur, Larsanli, Nangloi, Najafgarh, Rai, Sunipat, Paharganj, Subzimandi; Manjhaoli and Badarpur. At all of these, with the exception of Badarpur, money-orders are issued, and Savings Banks established. Indian Postal Notes for small sums can also be obtained at all with the above-mentioned exception. There are no District Offices, but the District Funds pay a yearly subscription to the Imperial Post Office.

There is a line of telegraph running along the railway from Dehli to Gurgáon, with stations at "Military Siding" and Pálam. Also one along the East Indian Railway to the North-West Provinces and westward.

Telegraphs,

CHAPTER V.

ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE.

SECTION A -GENERAL AND MILITARY

Chapter V, A.

General and Military. Executive and Judicial.

Criminal, Police and

Gaols.

The Dehli district forms one of the districts under the control of the Commissioner of Dehli. The ordinary head-quarters staff of the district consists of a Deputy Commissioner, a Judicial Assistant Commissioner, one Assistant Commissioner, two Extra-Assistant Commissioners, Judge of the Small Cause Court, District Superintendent of Police, two Assistant District Superintendents of Police, and the Civil Surgeon. One of the Extra-Assistant Commissioners is generally a European in charge of the Treasury, and one of the Assistant District Superintendents of Police is specially in charge of the City Police for which he receives an additional allowance.

Tahefi,		Kanungos and Náibs.	Girdawars.	Patwaris.	
Dehli	***	2	8	81	
Sunipat		2	3	82	
Ballabgarh		2	2	61	

There are three talsils, Sunipat, Dehli and Ballabgarh, all connected by metalled roads, and each in charge of a talsildár, who is assisted by a náib talsildár. The village revenue staff is

shown in the margin.

There are two Munsiffs in the district, one having jurisdiction within the Ballabgarh tahsil, and one having jurisdiction within the Sunipat tahsil, and 20 villages of the Dehli tahsil. There is no Munsiff's Court at the Sadr, the Small Cause Court taking its place.

The statistics of civil and revenue litigation for the last five

years are given in Table No. XXXIX.

The executive staff of the district is supplemented by two benches of Honorary Magistrates, one at Dehli, and the second at Sunipat.

The Police Force is controlled by a District Superintendent and two Assistants, one of whom is in special charge of the city of Dehli. The strength of the force, as given in Table I of 1881-1882, is shewn in the margin. In addition to these, 908 village watchmen are em-

		Distri	BUTION.
Class of Police.	Total strength	Standing guard.	Protection and detection.
District (Imperial) Cantonment Municipal Canal	517 11 591 22	100 23	417· 11 591
Total	1,141	122	1,019

ployed, giving an average of 1·12 men per village (see Chapter III, page 90); the largest number is found in Narela and Mahrauli, which have 11 chaukidárs each; the most prevalent castes among these are Shaikhs, Fakirs Bráhmins, Sweepers

Pathans, and Gújars. The average pay varies in different tahsíls. In Ballahgarh it is Rs. 26-10-6, in Dehli Rs. 34-7-6, in Sunipat Rs. 34-4-2. The thánas, or principal police jurisdictions, and the chaukis or police outposts, are distributed as follows:—

Chapter V, A.

General and
Military.

Criminal, Police and
Gaols.

Tahsil.	Thana.	Outpost.
Delili Within Mu- nicipal limits	Kotwáli. Hauz Kázi. Dehli Gate. Kashmíri Gate. Pahár Ganj. Sabzimandí. Alipur. Nangloi-Ját. Najafgarh.	Sadr Bázár. Mahaldar Khán. Makhara Paik in Bádli. Nagli. Singhola. Nathupur. Alipur. Sarhi Síta Rám. Garhi Piran. Mundka. Tikri. Tihar. Nizám-ud-din. Makhara Safdur Jang.
Sunipat	Rai. Larsauli. Sunipat.	Kimáspur. Bahalgarh. Rai. Murthal. Garhí Kalán. Bari. Larsaulí.
Ballahgarh	Mahraulf. Faridábád. Ballabgarh. Badarpur. Bassant. Majhauli. Chhainsah.	Fattehpur Asnula. Talab Kishandás. Pulpurhya. Pali. Dhauj. Sikri. Barh.

There are cattle-pounds at the following thánas: Alipur, Nangloi, Najafgarh, Rai, Larsauli, Sunipat, Mahrauli, Faridábád and Ballabgarh. There are also cattle-pounds at Chhansah and Badarpur, where there are no thánas. There are canal cattle-pounds at the following places: Sardhána, Júán, Jaunti, Chota Thána, Gangatoli, and Sarai Rahulla Khán.

The district lies within the Ambala police circle, under the control of the Deputy Inspector-General of Police at Ambala.

Year.		Total Jaii pepulatien.	Daily	Total number of civil prisoners for the year.
1876 1877 1878		1,217 1,119 1,730 • 2,015 1,378	383 336 352 , 417 848	84 106 88 50 56
Average		1,491	867	67

The District Jail is an old building, formerly a sarai, several hundred yards outside the Delhi Gate on the Badarpur road; the number of prisoners is shown in the margin, and averages about 367 criminal and 67 civil prisoners.

derived from that in Dehli for the years 1877-78 and 1878-79; from that in the other two towns the income derived was Rs. 632 in The ferries, bungalows and 1877-78 and Rs. 400 in 1878-79. encamping grounds have already been noticed in Chapter IV, Revenue, inxation, page 143, and the cattle-pounds in Chapter V, page 147.

Chapter V. A. General and Military. and registration.

Source of Income,	1977.73.	1578-70	1570-90. ·	1830.91.	1891.92.
Ferries with Hoat-Bridges Ferries without Staging Hungalows Cattle Pounds (including lines on stray cattle) Encamping grounds Naz'll Buildings (under District Officer) 1 held in trust by Municipalities	6 1 fo 5,8 fo 2,6 1 f 1,0 9 o 2,0 1 f 3,7 5 f 	6 456 3.628 2,588 1.331 1.785 3,187	4,053 9,327 2,810 1,713 1,611 2,865 12,868	4,121 3,125 3,056 2,011 1,054 2,001 12,071	3 623 3,103 3,103 3,037 2,661 1,663 2,317 14,628
Total	10,010	17,074	29,333	20,661	31.719

* For details see Chapter IV.

The nazul property mostly fell into the handsof the Government Government taigul after the Mutiny, and consists in many instances of objects of antiquarian rather than of utilitarian value, such as Humáyun's Tomb, Safdar Jang's Tomb, the pillar generally known as the Kutab Minar, Mauza Kandrat (the ruins of one of the former Dehli). Besides these there are other objects of public interest, such as the Parana Kila on the road from Dehli to Ballabgarh, the Kudsiah gardens, the Roshanara gardens, the two forts at Ballabgarh and Faridabad, the Dehli city Kotwali, the police lines situated ontside the Ajmir gate. A good many building sites in Dehli have fallen into the hands of Government, but in most cases those have been only of small value, and have generally been sold. In some cases they have been handed over to the Municipality of Dehli where they are within the jurisdiction of that body. Besides this Government is either sole or part proprietor of 99 villages comprising 31,381 acres with an estimated revenue of Rs. 25,540. It consists mostly of land confiscated at the Mutiny from the properties of the Raja of Ballabgarh, and the Nawab of Jhajjar. They are fully described in the next Figures for other Government estates section of this Chapter. are given in Table No. XVII, and they and their proceeds are noticed in the succeeding section of this chapter, in which the land revenue administration of the district is treated of.

Eource of Movembe. 1880-81 1881-82. Rs. Re. Surplos warrant (falubinah) Midlikana or proprietary dues Revenue fines and forfeitures 770 1,718 2,025 ••• Other items of miscellaucous land revenue 610

Table No. XXIX gives figures for theprincipalitems and the totals of land revenue collections since 1868-69. The re-

maining items for 1880-81 and 1881-82 are shown in the margin.

property.

Statistics of land revenue.

General and Military. Table No. XXXI gives details of balances, remissions, and agricultural advances for the last fourteen years; Table No. XXX shows the amount of assigned land revenue; while Table No. XIV gives the areas upon which the present land revenue of the district is assessed. Further details as to the basis, incidence, and working of the current Settlement will be found in the next section of this Chapter.

Education.

Table No. XXXVII gives figures for the Government and aided high, middle and primary schools of the district. The high school is at Dehli, and consists of two parts, English and Vernacular. There are middle schools for boys at Najafgarh, Arab Serai, Palam, Mahrauli, Ballabgarh, Faridabad and Sunipat.

There are primary schools for boys in the following places in the, Dehli tahsil: Arab Serai, Palam, Najafgarh, Purána Kila, Aliganj Serai Rahulla Khán, Madipur, Nangloi, Karala, Kanjháola, Jaunti, Tihar Nángal, Riha, Bijwásan, Mitraon, Jharaunda, Bhawána, Narela, Shamspur, Alipur; in the Ballabgarh táhsil, at Mahrauli, Ballabgarh, Faridábád, Mothki Masjid, Chirágh Dehli, Badarpur, Tilpat, Bhopani Khán, Kherí Tagah, Gharura, Atali, Mohana Sikia, Paota; in the Sunipat tahsil, at Sunipat, Nangal Jakhaulí, Kailánah, Murthal Bhatgaon, Larsauli, Ganaur Purkhas, Garhi Bráhminan, Rohat, Gohnah, Kundal. There are primary schools for girls at Nizámul-din and Ballabgarh. The district lies within the Delhi circle, which forms the charge of the Inspector of Schools at Dehli. Table No. XIII gives statistics of education collected at the Census of 1881, and the general state of education has already been described at page 53.

Besides these district schools, there are several owing their origin to private enterprise. Foremost of all comes the Anglo-Arabic School. It is supported by the proceeds of the Intimád-ul Daula endowment fund. Intimád-ul Daula, Nawáb Fázil Ali Khán, prime minister in the Court of Oude, in 1829 endowed the Dehli College with the sum of Rs. 70,000. The income of the endowment has been applied exclusively to the education of the Muhammadans of Dehli since 1872, when the present school was established. On the 31st March 1883

it consisted of-

(1)	Middle Departm	nont			•	•••	30 F	2078	
327	Middle Departu	16110	***	***			89	•	
(2) (3)	Upper Primary	Department	***	•••		•••		17	
(3)	Lower "	1)	***	***	•	***	187	"	
•									•
				Total			306 I	305B	٠

The next institution to be noticed is the Government Normal School for the training of vernacular teachers or students, who are sent up from all the districts of the Ambala circle for employment in the Vernacular Schools. On the 31st March 1883 there were 61 men under training. Attached to the Normal School is a Model School, consisting of a Lower Primary School. On the 31st March 1883 it contained 34 pupils. In addition to the schools mentioned above, there are the following aided schools: The Cambridge Mission College,

General and Military.

The Delhi College.

talist Dr. Springer. Mr. Cargill was the next principal, and after him Mr. J. Taylor, who lost his life in Delhi at the outbreak of the Mutiny through the treachery of a Muhammadan whom he tracted. The Library and School were completely sacked during the Muting but many of the Oriental works were recovered after the outbreak was quelled. A new institution was founded in 1855, and was affiliated to the University of Calcutta in 1864. The old college attained to great celebrity as an educational institution and produced many good scholars. Its pupils are to be found in positive of trust throughout Upper India. It educated up to the degree standards of the Calcutta University; and since 1868 some of the highest places, both in the B. A. and M. A. examinations, have been held by the students of this institution.

District school.

In the beginning of 1858, after peace was restored in Delhi, a talesili school was established in the building at present occupied by the primary school in the Chaori Bazar; and in the latter part of the same year this was converted into a District School, Master Ran Chandar being appointed the first head master, and the expenses of its establishment being borne by the Nawab Fund. The school is held. in the large block of buildings between the dak bungalow and the church, which was originally the residence of Nawab Abdul alad Khán, one of the Ministers of the Emperor Sháh Jahán. The occpound contains 3; acres of land and a boarding house for rural stipend-holders. The building consists of a large hall, which our tains the library, an examination room 90 x 211, and five goodsized rooms for the high school classes, the drawing master, and the Sanskrit teacher. It would appear that from the date of Lari Lake's annexation of the Delhi subah in the beginning of the present century up to the year 1842, the building continued to be used as the Residency. From the latter year, up to the Mutiny, it was occupied by the college classes and the principal. After the Muting, up to 1866 (when it was made over to the education authorities for the use of the college classes), it was converted into quarters for a battery of artillery. The school and its branches are under the superintendence of a European head master assisted by four teachers of English, Mathematics, and general knowledge, (of whom two are Europeans,) an Arabic teacher, a Pandit, and three Persian and Vernacular teachers. There is also a Librarian, in whose custody The foregoing me is the Library of the extinct Delhi College. employed in the High and Middle Schools only. In the Upper Press. School, situated in the city, four English and three Vernzcular teachers are employed. The Lower Primary in the same building has five Vernacular teachers, and in the three branch schools in different parts of the city nine teachers are employed. Statistics for the last five years are given at the top of next page.

Normal School.

A Normal School for training Vernacular school-masters was established at Delhi in 1860, and in 1864 a similar institution was amalgamated with it, which up to this time had existed at Ambala. The Normal School is intended to train and instruct school-masters and candidates for teacherships in the Primary Schools of the Ambala circle of inspection, which includes the Delhi, Hissar, and Ambala divisions. For several years previous to the opening

Name of School.		Year.		Expenditúro	Monthly arreage number of pupils.	Number of pupils passed the Cal. Uni-examination.	Number of pupils passed the P. U. examination.	Number of pupils passed the M. S. examination.
SECONDARY.	1878-79 1870-80 1880-81 1841-42 1882-83	•••	000 000 000 000	Re. 23,311 ,, 22,059 ,, 17,013 ,, 10,131 ,, 20,270	298 178 128 132 172	8 9 0 7	22 17 0 4 3	10 17 4 13 16

Chapter V, A. General and Military.

District School.

Name of School.	Ygar.	Expendituro	Monthly accrage number of pupils.	Number of pupils passed the U. P. Primary School examination.	Number of pupils passed the L. P. School examina-tion.
PRIMARY.	1878-79 1870-80 1880-81 1891-82 1882-83	Re, 4.848 ,, 5.011 ,, 6.019 ,, 5,432 ,, 5,525	602 610 614 607 608	30 31 69	30 42 61 121 91

Normal School.

of the Central Training College at Lahore, the course of study extended over two years for Primary School teachers and a third year for those who were fitted to qualify for certificates of ability to teach in Middle Schools. At the present time no student remains under instruction for more than two years, and for those who have previously passed the Middle School examination, or in fact nearly all, the course lasts only one year. Teachers already in employ, and candidates for employment, are selected by Deputy Commissioners for training; while in the Normal School they revise and make themselves perfect in the subjects of study prescribed for Vernacular Schools, and are besides instructed in the art of teaching. There is a small practising school in connection with the Normal School, in which the students all take their turns as teachers under the supervision of one of the staff. The Normal School occupies a hired building known as the Kalan Mahal, or Kala Mahal near the great mos-Besides the class rooms, there are chambers for about fifty students, the usual number in residence. The staff consists of a head master and three teachers, one of whom has to superintend the practising school. The statement at the top of next page shews the expenditure, number of students, and examination results for five years.

On the 2nd January 1883, at the instance of Colonel Holroyd, Industrial School. the Director of Public Instruction, at a meeting held in the Town Hall, it was resolved that—I. It was highly desirable to establish a School of Industrial Art at Delhi, and that instruction should be given in the following branches: Drawing, carpentry, wood and stone-carving, plaster work, pottery, iron work, and carpet-weaving. II. That application should be made to the Municipality to supply the necessary funds. III. That a Museum for the exhibition of

Chapter V, A.

General and
Military.

Normal School.

			ه.	RES	CLIS OF E	ZTRINT	Ions.	
Yearr			the rolls.		Passe	d in		77
		Expendituro.	Number on t	1st Grado.	2nd Grado.	3rd Grado.	4th Grade.	Remark
1878-79 1879-80 1880-81 1881-82 1882-83	***	8,544 6,421 6,589 4,708 4,708	115* 72 52 64 60	1 No. 3rd Results	3 10 class not know	3 4 n yet.	11 17 14 35	

* Includes 48 students of the Model School attached to Normal School.

Industrial School.

specimens of various trades and arts of pure Delhi manufacture should be formed. On Colonel Holroyd's application, the Municipal Committee voted a lump sum of Rs. 3,000 for initial expenses, and a monthly grant of Rs. 250 for the establishment and the pay

of pupils.

The Managing Committee accordingly opened the school on the 1st March in a house known as Amu Jan ka Diwan Khanah, near the Tahawwur Masjid, with a staff consisting of a manager, three carpenters, a smith, a weaver, and a carpet-weaver. Since the school has been opened, the attendance has averaged 28, vic., twelve carpet-weavers, twelve carpenters and four in the smithy. The carpet-weavers have already turned out fair work, and will exhibit probably this year in Calcutta. The boys employed in this trade are bhisties' sons. chamárs and Christians. The carpenters' class is composed of carpenters' sons. They have made the school furniture from designs furnished by the manager, and are learning freehand drawing. The smith class is a small one, and is composed of Christian lads Owing to the difficulty of obtaining a teacher in the Punjab, the Committee propose employing an assistant teacher of the School of Art Bombay. Unfortunately the Lahore School of Art caunot supply one, though at one time it was expected that a competent draughtsman could be got from there. There are no female classes, and no examinations have been yet held; but in addition to the small sums paid daily to the boys, it is proposed to give scholarships by and by when the school is more advanced. A large quantity of books on art, drawing, perspective, geometry and mechanics, as well as tools and a lathe, have been ordered from England; and when they arrive the school, with a good teacher, will undoubtedly make rapid progress and have increased attendance, as Delhi boys are very apt.

Anglo-Arabic School. After the recapture of Dehli in 1857, a school was established on the ruins of the old Dehli College, which was at first supported entirely from the proceeds of the Nawab Fund, and afterwards partly from that fund, and partly from Government grant. In 1872 it was considered advisable by the local Government to spend the income of the Nawab Fund exclusively for the education of Musalmana, and

the school now designated the Anglo-Arabic School was established. The school has therefore been in existence in its present form for more than ten years, during which time it has made satisfactory progress. The numbers on the rolls on 31st March 1883 amounted to 306 with an average daily attendance amounting to 272. school is under the control of the Department of Public Instruction, the Government being a trustee to the fund, and is managed by a committee consisting of ten Muhammadan gentlemen, four official members and a sceretary. The boys attending the school are instructed in English and Vernacular, Arabic being an optional subject for those who desire to learn it. The school consists of a Middle Department comprising thirty pupils, and a Primary Department containing 276 boys. The school is held in a native building, which is sufficiently commodious. The school has passed forty-one students in the Middle School examinations since the date of its establishment. The staff consists of a head master and thirteen other teachers.

Table No. XXXVIII gives separate figures for the last five years for each of the dispensaries of the district, which are under the general control of the Civil Surgeon, and in the immediate charge of Assistant Surgeons at Dehli (the Central Dispensary) and at Sunipat, and of hospital assistants at two branch dispensaries at Dehli (the Lal Kua branch and Sadr Bazar branch), and at the Dispensaries of Ballabgarh, Farídábád, Najafgarh, Mahrauli and the Dehli Eye Hospital. There is a Lunatie Asylum near the jail, and a Lock hospital. of the first class in the city; the latter founded in August 1870. There is also a hospital for women and children managed by the S. P. G. Mission in Dehli, and a training class for native nurses under the same management. There is a large Civil Hospital in the town near the Jamma Masjid, capable of holding a large number of patients.

Before the Mutiny of 1857, the hospital was situated somewhere near the Fort, on the north side near 2 tank called the Laldigi. It contained eight in door patients, and but very little is known about it, as the records were all destroyed on the fatal 10th May 1857, when the Sub-Assistant Surgeon, Chimman Lal, a Christian and a Delhi Káyath by easte, fell the very first victim, being pointed out to the mutineer sowars by one of his establishment. The Civil Surgeon, Dr. Balfour, who escaped to Kailana, where he with others was protected by a lambardár Giana of that village, returned after the capture, and opened a small dispensary in the, Ballimaran, putting a native doctor in charge. The dispensary remained in Ballimaran for three years, the old hospital having been demolished.

In 1861 the present hospital was completed under Dr. Smith's superintendence. It has accommodation for 28 males and separate quarters for five or six females. The building is conveniently situated for certain parts of the city, but is quite inadequate to the growing needs of Delhi, leaving aside the fact of its extreme unhealthiness, which has obliged the Civil Surgeon to rent a native house to keep operation cases in. It is, however, proposed to build a proper hospital outside the Lahore Gate on the Okhlah canal, which will be

Chapter V, A.

General and
Military.

Anglo-Arabic

School. . -

Medical.

Dehli Civil Hospital. Chapter V, A. General and

Military.

convenient for the populous suburbs, as well as for the city. The hospital is to contain 80 beds, and to have quarters for the staff, and a female hospital and dispensary. This hospital will front the Lahore Gate and be situated on the bank of the canal on a dry and Delhi Civil Hospital miry site. The Royd. Mr. Smith, of the Baptist Mission, first started the Lalkna Dispensary when Vice President in 1864, and the Sadr Bazar Dispensary was founded by the Civil Surgeon, Dr. Smith, in 1862, Native Doctor Gholam Ahmad Khan having held charge for the last 21 years.

Launtic Arylum.

The Lunatic Asylum founded in 1840, existed till 1861, when it was broken up and the whole of the impates transferred to Labore. From 1861 to 1867, the building was used for jail workshops, but in the latter year was again taken for the purpose for which it was originally intended. The Asylum covers an oblong plot of ground, 420 feet by 470 feet; it is situated on a high and well drained position above the kholder and about a mile from the hed of the Jamua which runs to the east, towards which the buildings face. The outside walls are composed, as are all the buildings of the Asylum, of stone and lime mortar masoury; they are substantial and well built. The building consists of an office, observation wards, separate cells, hospital, work shops, principal ward, and separate rooms, wards for women, and European wards,

> There is room for males .. females 15 Total... 100

The present staff consists of one Deputy Superintendent, one hospital assistant, one head warder, eleven warders, one matron, two assistant and menials. The general management of the Asylum is as follows: The males sleep, either in the barrack, or in the rooms in the central yard. Four keepers sleep in the barrack with the patients. Criminals and dangerous lumatics are confined separately at night. Both the female warders pass the night with female patients. The whole of the inmates are awoke about sunrise and are taken out, and after a time, varying with the seasons, those that will work go in their various employments. They have their morning meal at 10 a.M., and rest till about 2; and then working till 5 P. M., when they are bathed and washed in summer and have their evening meal; after dinner they amuse themselves with unusical instrument and cards, &c., till sunset or dark; when they go to bed. The following figures show the working of the Asylum for the last five years.

Year.	Year. Year.		Tolal.	Male.	Female.	Total.	
1878 1879 1880 1891 1892	0,116 8,213 7,705 0,147 10,467	131 453 417 663 507	0,250 8,706 8,243 0,810 10,074	116 01 76 85 93	50 50 51 51 50 50	145 118 05 105 115	

There is a large church at Delhi huilt by Colonel Skinner. A chaplain is generally posted to the station, and hesides this there are three Missions attached to Delhi, the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, the Cambridge Mission, and the Baptist Mission. There is also a Roman Catholic Chaplain. In addition to the church there are three other places of worship, one belonging to the S. P. G. and Cambridge Mission, one to the Baptist Mission, and one to the Roman Catholic Church, the latter being for the hencit of the garrison in the fort.

The nortion of the East Indian Railway which runs through the district is in the charge of the Deputy Traffic Superintendent. Allahábád, while that of the Sind Panjáb and Delhi Railway is in the charge of the Traffic Superintendent at Lahore. That part of the Raipntana-Malwa Railway running through the district is controlled by the Manager living at Ajmir. The head offices of the three railways are at Calcutta, Lahore and Ajmir, respectively. The head-quarters of the Rewnri-Firozpur Railway are also at Delhi. The Western Jamua Canal, as far up as Rer, is under the charge of the Executive Engineer, Delhi Division, whose head-quarters are at Delhi. The Superintending Engineer of the Canal also has his head-quarters at Delhi. The Agra Canal is under the control of the North-Western Provinces. This is under the charge of the Executive Engineer whose head-quarters are at Delhi. It is under the general control of the Superintending Engineer, 3rd Circle of Irrigation, North-Western Provinces, whose head-quarters are also at Delhi. The Grand Trunk Road north of Delhi is under the Exeentive Engineer, General Branch at Delhi. He is subordinate to the Superintending Engineer, General Branch at Jalandhar. military buildings are in charge of the Executive Engineer, Military Works at Mirath, and the Superintending Engineer, Military Works, also at Mirath. The Telegraph lines and offices of the district are controlled by the Telegraph Superintendent of Ambalah, and the Post Offices by the Superintendent of Post Offices at Delhi.

The only military station in the district is the cantonment of

Regimental	Non-connissioned Officees and men.							
and Staff	Arrillery.	Natice Carairy.	British Infantry.	Nativo Infantry.				
34	117	65	319	G 95				

Delhi, situated inside the walls, about two miles from the Civil Lines, and the Native Cavalry lines, situated close to the Civil Lines. The Cantonment is situated partly inside the fort, and partly outside. The

ordinary garrison of Delhi consists of one garrison battery, one wing of a British Infantry Regiment, and one Regiment of Native Infantry. The Cantonment forms part of the Mirath Division, and the troops are under the command of the General Officer Commanding at Mirath. The total garrison of the district, as it stood in July 1882, is shown in the margin. The figures are taken from the Quarter-Master General's Distribution List for that month, and include those who are sick or absent. In Delhi, there being no Government Storage Depôt, or Manufactory of warlike stores, the

Chapter V, A.

General and Military. Ecclesiastical.

Head-quarters of other Departments.

Cantonments, troops, &c.

General and Military.

Cantonments, troops, &c.

defences are mainly confined to the double object of commanded the city, and protecting the Railway communication across the Jamna. This is at present secured by the Fort, and by a Garrier consisting of:—

1 Battery Garrison Artillery. 4 Companies of European Infantry. 1 Regiment of Native Infantry.

the Europeans residing in the Fort, and the Native Regiment in the adjoining lines of Daryá Ganj. The Fort wall is about 11 miles in eircumference, and on the east side, where coincident with the rite wall, consists of a simple vaulted drop of 20 feet to the bal of the Jamna, the remainder being a masonry wall 40 feet high with a double tier of loopholes, and protected by a variled ditch 12 feet deep with a covered way and glacis. The two main gates, the Lahore Gate on the west, and Delhi on the south, are protected by rectangular masonry envelopes armed with ordnance, firing through embrasures. The flanks of these envelopes spring from the enceinte, which commands them by ton feet. On the north side is the important out-work of Salimgarh, separated from the enceinte by a small channel of the Jamna 30 yards with. spanned by a masonry bridge. This work has an earthen paragraph. with stone revetment, 25 feet high. Its interior is commanded from the enceinte and the Railway passes along the level of its terre plein, entering by a masonry bridge over the small channel of the Jamna at the west, and passing directly on to the main Jamus bridge on the east side. On each of the main gate envelopes and mounted:-

Two 24-pr. ... Smooth-bore guns
,, 8-inch ... Howitzers
, 8-inch ... Mortars

which both command the town and sweep the ditch. On an indicated portion of the N. face of the enceinte are two 8-inch howitzers sweeping the line of Railway in opposite directions, and in Salimgarh are two 24-pr. smoothbore guns commanding the bridge and river, and one 8-inch howitzer sweeping the main with from the town at the east, whilst finally within the fort are four land 9-pr. field guns, and two 12-pr. brass howitzers. The total ordname thus available is:—

Six 24-pr. .. S. B. Gune
Seven 8-inch .. Howitzers
Four 8- .. Mortars
Six ... Field pieces

for which the requisite stores and 200 rounds per gun are maintained within the fort. The fort is commanded from the Ridge at distances varying from 1,000 to 3,000 yards, and the view of the intervening ground is much interfered with by foliage and buildings, but the glacis gives a good, clear field of fire round the wall for 500 yards, except at the north-west, where considerable electric would be necessary in anticipation of a siege. A scheme for rangement of the fort, including rifled 64-pr. and 40-pr. guns, also signified howitzers, has been matured, and some of the employees on the eastern face prepared, but this will not be taken in hand till

that at Agra is completed. Within the fort is ample barrack accommodation for 250 additional Europeans and considerable ancient storage-room, but no supplies or transport are maintained, except to suffice for the current routine requirements of a stationary garrison.

Chapter V, B. Land and Land Revenue.

There is is one Company of the 1st Punjab Volunteer Rifles, viz. the F. company stationed here, whose head-quarters are to Lahore. It is recruited principally from the European and Eurasian community of Delhi, except Railway employes, who join their respective Railway Corps. The enrolled strength of the Company on the 1st April 1883 was about 37.

SECTION B.—LAND AND LAND REVENUE.

The early revenue administration of the district was crude, Early Revenue Adnot to say arbitrary. The great idea of successfully managing the revenue appears to have been to put strong pressure on subordinates, beginning at the tuhsildar, who was held personally responsible for balances. This pressure was passed on to the zamindars in the shape of quartering souries, on the villages till the revenue was paid. Under such circumstances, it was not strange that complaints should come up from time to time that "cultivators in whole sets of villages are absconding en masse," either during or at the end of the short lease given them. It was considered a measure of relief to proclaim that "Government would take only Re. I a kacha bigha in the Khadar lands and 12 annas in the Bangar. These indulgent rates give about Rs. 4-12 and Rs. 3-10 as the incidence per acre, Reports of distressed villages mentioned in 1824 that, 'Chatera Bahadarpur' (which has just been re-assessed at Rs. 860) " paying Rs. 1,400 should pay Rs. 500;" "Mallalı Mazra, assessed at Rs. 2,180, beats Chatera Bahádarpur hollow in poverty and privation," Of Kimáshpur assessed at Rs. 4,130, the "camindirs are tolerably intimate with poverty"; while another village, Atael, "has not a tale to tell now-adays, for it is described!" In 1826, statistics of some villages in Sunipat talisit are given, which may be usefully compared with corresponding data, as obtained at the Regular Settlement, 1842, and now during the operations recently concluded. The figures are given on the next page.

The nature of the early revenue arrangements has already been described as very summary. They appear to have been made as much as possible on the basis of existing arrangements, without considering whether those assessments were originally just or not, or whether changed circumstances did not make it necessary to modify them materially. Of course when a village, or a set of villages broke down entirely, and the cultivators absconded in a body, it became obviously the only thing to do to remodel, and probably to moderate the assessment. And in this way, Settlement operations were always more or less in progress, the agreements being intended apparently to last only for a few years, or until they should break

ministration.

Summary Settlements.

	. 02		23	~>14TT	11011	WII.	M AD	m FIV	ANCE.		
Chapter V, B. Land and Land Revenue. Early Revenue Administration.	Villages.	Year.	Inhabitants.	Oultivators.	Plougha.	Wolls.	Cattle.	Total Area.	Cultivable.	Jame nettled in 1821-23.	Anbroquent Ju-
	1.—Pabsara 2.—Chhidya Yúsafpur 3.—Ghasáoli 4.—Ghayáspur 5.—Sunpera 6.—Pahnera 7.—Patti Bráhmanán 8.—Begáh 9.—Chándanli	1826 1842 1850 1826 1842 1850 1826 1842 1890 1826 1842 1890 1826 1842 1890 1826 1848 1848 1848 1848 1848 1848 1848 184		41 	17 43 10 28 31 10 48 12 69 24 68 68 68 68 68 68 68 68	13 16 4 7 24 10 39 10 49 19 6 44 118 12 26	. 83 . 535 . 26 . 143 . 310 . 1,003 . 121 	2 636 877 863 1,090 523 1,914 1,854 1,517 2,200 1,112 2,527 1,049 2,527 1,049 2,527 2,014 822 629 321 6,007 3,734 3,934 650 853 653	2,236 749 762 749 424 509 1,344 1,212 1,272 1,709 1,053 949 2,291 865 1,019 1,834 703 1,834 703 3,44 5,766 3,650 618 645	2,000 1,131 1,250 2,900 400	577 (1.57) (1.57

Summary Settlements.

.down.

If an estate was fairly lucky, the Settlements made with it appear to have been in Sunipat as follows:-1.-Before 1817-the existing demand.

2.—From 1817-18 to 1824-25—First Summary Settlement. 3.—From 1825-26 to 1829-30—An agreement, or series of agreements,

hardly authorised enough to be called a Settlement.

4.—From 1830-31 to 1840-41—Second Summary Settlement.

5.—From 1841-42 to 1872—Regular Settlement. But in the earlier period it is not uncommon to find years

noted as talisil khám, showing the assessment to have broken down.* Under such circumstances, farms naturally were common, and when they broke down direct management had to be resorted to with very significant results. Thus, in 1824, in an occasional report, 48 villages are mentioned as held in farm; while, in about the same year, 39 villages which had been assessed at Rs. 70,005, when held under

From 1830-31—1832-33 From 1833-34—1842-43 From 1843-44—1873-74 1.905 22. 1,651 This looks as though there had been considerable over-assessment at first; on the

other hand in a village close by, Bagru, a rapid increase was made.

From 1817-18 to 1825-26it paid... ... Rs. 1,659 From 1826-27 to 1833-34 1834-35 2.857 1835-36 21 3,576 From 1836-37 to 1843-44 From 1844-45 onward

^{*} The village of Bidhnauli, for instance, experienced the following vicissitales of assessment: From 1819-20 to 1822-23 1.774 From 1823-24—1824-25 tahsil khám, average 2.307 From 1825-26-1829-30 2.222

direct management, brought in only Rs. 50,544. In the case of nine villages, the leases aggregating Rs. 32,131 had been cancelled by the second member of the Board, and the kham collections in the following year reached only Rs. 13,375!

It would appear, then, that, up to the Regular Settlement, Sunipat shared the misfortunes of Panipat. The summary assessments were equally harsh, the measures taken for realisation were equally oppressive and unsuccessful. In fact, in 1839 the tahsil was so badly in debt to the Treasury, that Government adopted the common sense remedy of repudiating its own exactions by striking off the large balances then existing, which were indeed practically irrecoverable. There is, however, in the office a manuscript report on Panipat. and Sunipat, signed by J. Lawrence, in which notes are made on each village with recommendations for new assessment. These notes appear to be in Mr. Fraser's hand writing. The following extracts are of some interest:

"Sanipat Bangar is the finest, most populous, and best cultivated parganah in the district. It contains 97 khálsa villages, of which 77 are irrigated from the canal, and the greater part of the remaining 20 have more or less irrigation from wells. Water varies, on an average, in depth from 35 to 70 feet, but most of the villages without the canal are at the junction of the parganah with the khádir or low lands, and water therefore is seldem more than 35 feet deep. They could all have the canal, but the ontlay of capital is more than small villages at a distance can afford, and to those adjoining the Khádar it is not worth the expense. Canal irrigation is carried to a very considerable extent, probably exceeding half the whole cultivated area. Independent of the actual amount of irrigation, every village benefits more or less in proportion to its distance from the canal, the constant percolation from it affecting the soil, and increasing its productive powers most surprisingly. Wells to a considerable distance which were formerly dry are now amply supplied with water. The population of the parganah bears a very good proportion to the area, and at the same time is very equally spread over its surface. This circumstance, and its extensive irrigation, have rendered it a perfect garden. You may ride for miles, and see nothing but the most splendid cultivation. The survey returns of 1825 give an area of 1,05,881 acres of culturable land, of which 69,692 acres was then cultivated. Irrigation from the canal has since probably doubled, and of course the cultivation has greatly increased. The revenue of Suaipat Bangar of 1243 Fasli, was Rs. 2,57,549-9, which gives the acreage rate of Rs. 2-0-71, and Rs. 2-15-2 on the then cultivated With reference to its málguzári area, it is the highest assessed parganal in the district; with regard to its resources, or its cultivation, the lowest."

It will be noted how prosperous the condition of the country

appear to have been at the time (1836).

In 1842 a Regular Settlement of Sunipat was made by Mr. The Regular Settle-Edmonstone, the proposals of Mr. Fraser, who had been entrusted with the task in the first instance, being disallowed. That Settlement gave a reduction in the Bángar of Rs. 2,949 and in the Khádar of Rs. 19,761, on the regular Government demand. The payments, however, on the cesses and police were increased, in the Bangar by Rs. 10,051, in the Khadar by Rs. 4,908. So that the net result on the whole tahsil was a reduction of Rs. 7,751 as shown on next page.

Chapter V, B. Land and Land Revenue.

> Summary Settlements. .

ment of Sunipat.

Chapter V, B.
Land and Land
Revenue.

The Regular Settlement of Sunipat.

	Jame.	Lambar- dári.	Roed.	Polite.	Tetal
Sunipat Bungar Regular Set-	2,52,131	11,593	. , ,,,,	***	2,53724
tlement Former n Khádar Regular Set-	1,27,891	12.462 .6,545	2,618 	8,551 	2.70.229 1.33,745
1 tlement	1.08,040	5,394	1,135	3.921	1,12,523
CHANGE ON TOTAL TANSIL	-22,710	+718	+3,753	+10,453	-7,761

Mr. Edmonstone considered these reductions necessary. "It was ascertained," says he speaking more particularly of the Khádzr, "that the greatest difficulty had been invariably experienced in "realizing the demands of Government; that, notwithstanding strenutions and well sustained efforts, the district officers and their subordinates had been baffled; and that balances had been frequent and large"

Its working.

Relief was sufficiently given only in the Khadar—the assessment there with one or two exceptions, for which there are especial reasons, was moderate, and its results has been a success. The Bingar assessment was too high; that is, for a continuance. The soil then must have been still in its first burst of glorious fruitfulness under canal irrigation. The sight of a good Bangar village then must indeed have been one to inspire confidence; the shor was a very imperfectly understood evil, and its power of expansion could not be foreseen. So the heavy rates of Rs. 3-2 and Rs. 1-10 were levied on the nahri and barani lands with confidence, and the Settlement Officer was able to predict "a speedy and perfect restoration of the parganal "(Bangar) to that state of prosperity which has hitherto distinguished "it." These expectations were partly realized. The palmy days of the Bangar were probably the first ten years of the Regular Settlement. Enormous irrigation was carried on, and as yet it had not made its slowly, but surely working result felt. As years went en however, the calamity became apparent, and the series of reductions began, which in all amount to nearly 23,000 rupees.*

After this there were no more reductions, doubtless because the end of the Settlement term was drawing near. Meanwhile the Khádar was going on favourably; there seems reasons to believe that throughout the thirty years of Settlement its development has been steady and decided. Like the "happy country" of classic reference, its annals are a blank, or nearly so; the total balances being Rs. 2,942, an insignificant amount which remained unpaid on the one or two villages which by some oversight had remained heavily burdened, and even these came short only in the bad vears, 1860-63. The balances in the Bángar too were very insignificant, Rs. 1,456; but there was an ever increasing and much more destructive loss than that of money going on, the effect of which is only now seen. The results of the Settlement working may thus be summed up. For the Bángar, bad, because the ground and the men cultivating it are not in so good condition as at the beginning.

^{*} There was a recovery in 1872 of 1,043 rapees, levied on some that in Thank Khard, renovated by canal-silting—a most interesting and preity successful experiment.

Chapter V. B.

Land'and Land

Revenue.

the Delhi taksil.

For the Khadar, good, because the ground is not injured, nay in some respects better, and the men too are better off now than in 1842.

In the central division there was a Settlement by Mr. J. H. Early Settlements in Taylor which is alluded to by Mr. Lawrence in reporting the Regular Settlement of 1844, but it does not appear in what year this was made. The arrangements would seem to have been slightly more permanent than in Suninat, but the number of farms shows that the zamindárs were not happy under them. Mr. J. Lawrence, in his report of 1844, on the Regular Settlement then made by him. says :-

"Of 846 villages, the engagements of 214 are made with the proprietors. and 132 with farmers; of these latter all but 40, which continue until tho end of Settlement, will gradually, during the next eight years, revert to the owners. The number of farming leases is no doubt an evil, but it appears to have been an unavoidable one. The practice seems always to have prevailed in the district to a great extent. Indeed I believe there have always been more farming leases here than in all other districts of the division put together."*

The assessment he reported for these 346 villages was Rs. 3,57,852, being a decrease of Rs. 36,984 or nearly 10 per cent. on Mr. Taylor's jama of Rs. 3.94.836; and the incidence per cultivated acre of the revised amount was Rs. 2-0-9. That of the southern pargunal, which included the hilly villages near Mahrauli, was Rs. 1-11-7, as against Rs. 2-5-5. In comparing these results with the present taksil the partial difference in limits must be remembered. This relief was considerable, and doubtless was necessary; but if so, it is not easy to understand the strong terms in which the prosperity of the country is spoken of. The report says :-

"In a flourishing parganah on this side the river, we have no large zamindár with his lac or two lacs of annual income; but on the other hand we have thousands of small proprietors each with his brood mare, his buffaloes, his oxen, in short, with everything that marks a comfortable position in life. In no part of the Western Provinces, of which I have had experience, are the tenures so complete and so well recognized as here; no district where the ancient village communities are in such excellentpreservation, or where the practice of our civil courts has hitherto done so little harm."

Since Settlement there is not much to record of this part of the district. Since the Mutiny the balances have been Rs. 56,381, the suspensions Rs. 99,782, and the remissions Rs. 21,368, giving for the yearly average, as percentages on the annual demand, balances 1.6 per cent. suspensions 1.7, and remissions 4 per cent. Before the Mutiny, under an authority not to be ascertained, reductions were given to the amount of Rs. 3,874; and after the Mutiny it was considered necessary further to give relief in certain villages, especially those belonging to the confiscated estates of the rebel Nawab of Jhajjar. The amount thus remitted was Rs. 7,541, which in addition to the sum above-mentioned, gives Rs. 11,415 as the total amount reduced since Settlement.

Of Ballabgarh, 126 villages belonged to the Rája of Ballabgarh Ballabgarh. Early and first came into our hands after the Mutiny. The first Settle-

Settlements.

^{*} There is a village in this taksil said to have been sold up for a balance of less' than ten rupees ! The farmer himself bought it. .

Chapter V, B. Land and Land Revenue.

Ballabrarb. Early Sutlements. ment of these was made for Rs. 1,55,701 for one year; then one a second of three years at Rs. 1,21,449; and then one for seven years at Rs. 99,212. In a manuscript report by Mr. Cooper, Depty Commissioner of Delhi, of 1861, it is said:—

"The parganah come under attachment in September 1807. It withstanding rebellion abroad, and she agitation and turnoù arred Balk agriculture went on with characteristic indifference to political suffer and the crops sown in June and July of 1857 were peccefully respel in Orighe. What is more, the heavy instalment of revenue of the deposed district was promptly paid up to to the last pie. A Summary Sendemant was donce made upon the average of ten years' revenue collections amorting to the Rája's accounts, on a total of Rs. 1,68,151-8-9."

This jama referred to 134 villages, eight of which had been silvequently transferred to Gurgion and Bulandshahr. Mr. Cooper gree on to observe:—

"As might have been expected, the late chief's collections were my heavy. In the year 1855 he had alsolately laid a text of Re. 197,000. The usual consequence ensued; half the villagers deserted, and the samed chieftain rock-record the remainder. The smallest amount, in a very had seesen, was Rs. 1,26,000. In such a year, one-half would make our system, have been collected. The assessment now sunctimed is Rs. 1,20,513. The calculations were thus:—

Tire year average .	•••	,	1,80,255
12 years de		***	1.70.223
Summery Settlement		•••	1,64,845
By rates	• •••	***	1.52.5/2
Exica Archiant's propos	ele	***	1,52,612
Revised and sunctioned	544	***	1,543,553

"The reduction on the Sammer, Settlement amounts to usual At 40,000. The result is a dappy mean between the descript assessed southern parganals, and the very light rates of the adjoining parganals Graphing.

The seven years' Settlement was made by Bane Lin The other eight villages, not regularly settled, were jugits. Of the 143 villages of Regular Settlement:—

No. Wood gives the summary force as ... Bs. 160380

As the force stood before the Musiny ... 20183

The demand before revision ... 2020 inflows

After the Husiny a reduction of ... 2020 inflows

often

Among these 149 villages, must be reckored those of the parganah Páli-Pákal. This parganah (see printed report of 2007, 1841 by G. Barnes) was, at the conquest of Deini, given "by Generi" Lord Lake to the Rájá of Ballabgarh, for the purpose of deining "the expenses of a police establishment to parol the roal between "Delhi and Palwal, which at that time was lined on either side of "dense jungle, and infested with thieves. The original grant was infer for life; but, on the application of the Resident of Delhi air "parganah remained in the possession of the Ballabgarh family "the death of Kanwar Ráj Singh in 1832, A.D. On its lapse the "parganah comprised 43 villages, of which 18 were excited removed from the main body of the parganah, and occupied is lated in within the limits of the adjacent division." Twenty-five of the former with two five

Solma,* while the others were distributed among the neighbouring parganals. Mr. Barnes, in the report referred to, gives a concise and graphic account of the circumstances of this part of the district. would seem that the Summary Settlement here was made in 1832, and that W. Fraser, Commissioner of Delhi in 1834, made a Settlement for 20 years. Mr. Barnes's revision thus broke in half-way on this term. The jama assessed by him was Rs. 25,304, being a reduction of Rs. 5,380 on Mr. Fraser's Settlement. Of this taksil as a whole it may be said that the previous assessment, though unequal in incidence in different parts, was, in 1872, when the operations of the recent revision began, decidedly light.

Land and Land Revenue.

Chapter V, B.

Ballabgarh, Early Settlement.

The collections of revenue for the district under the Settlements The old assessments.

lately revised were, for 1877-78 (the last year in which the old arrangements remained in their entirety), fixed land revenue, Rs. 8,80,170; fluctuating and miscellaneous land-revenue, Rs. 12,940;

local rates Rs. 59,308.

The district of Delhi was placed under revision of Settlement Revision of 1872-80. by Punjab Government Notification 119 of 29th January 1872. At that time the distribution of villages among the three taksils was as follows: Ballabgarh 282, Delhi 305, Sunipat 211, total 798 villages. During Settlement changes were made which have been detailed in Chapter II, page 27. The measurements were made on \$10 villages, and assessments were announced on these; but subsequently three estates were carried over to Bulandshahr, leaving only 807 villages in the district and 280 in Ballabgarh. Of Regular Settlement the 798 villages put under Settlement there were \$\frac{1}{600}\$ which had ment villages. already been under a regular Settlement at different times, while 198 had been under Summary Settlement only. By taksils as follows:—

**				Ballabgarh,	Delhi.	Sunipat.
Previously 1	ander F	legnlar Settlement	•••	148	244	208
29	27	Summary	•••	134	61	3

Of the Summary Settlement villages in Ballabgarh, 126 had belonged to the confiscated territory of the Raja of Ballabgarh. The eight remaining were jágirs, or had been held in private property by the king of Delhi. Of the 61 in Delhi, 7 had belonged to the Nawab of Jhajjar, 13 to the jagir of Mirza Moghal Beg, 3 to the jágír of Rája Jísukh Rái, 11 to the king as private property, 8 to Ramrao Palgir, 5 to the king of Oudh, 4 to the Nawah Bahadar Jang Khan, and the remainder to separate jágárdárs. The three villages in Sunipat were also jágírs. A detailed list of all villages for the first time under Regular Settlement in 1872 will be found in Appendix XV of Mr. Maconachie's report.

† Its boundary with the North-West Provinces district of Mirath and Buland. shahr had been determined as the deep stream of the river Jamna, [See Notification No. 4 of January 3rd, 1870, Punjab Gazette.]

This makes 27: the names of these were: Sakrauna, Sarohi, Kheri, Gujar, Nagla Jogyan, Zakupur, Karnerah, Firozpur, Allawalpur, Páli. Majesar, Madalpur, Bijupur, Oli, Khori, Jamalpur, Pakal, Paotah, Dhauj, Kotlah, Mohabbatabad, Bajri, Tikri, Kherah, Mangar, Kot, Sulakhri, Alampur, Nurpur, Dhumspur, Kharkharah, Ranhera.

In the first Notification the number was given as 619, but under subsequent notifications 19 more villages in Delhi were considered as having been only summarily settled.

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land Revenue.

Principles of assessment.

Settlement operations were conducted under the Land Revenue Act, XXXIII, of 1871 which came into force on January 1st, 1872 and the rules published by the Local Government in accordance therewith; the instructions for assessment were as follows:—

"The general principle of assessment to be followed is that the Government demand for land revenue shall not exceed the estimated value of half the net produce of an estate, or in other words one-half the share of the produce of an estate ordinarily receivable by the landlord either in money or kind. In applying this principle in the case of the district above named, where produce rents prevail, special attention should be given by the Settlement Officer to produce estimates.

"In estimating the land revenue demand, the Settlement Officer will take into consideration all circumstances directly or indirectly learns upon the assessment, such as rent rates where money rates exist, the habits and character of the people, the proximity of marts for the disposal of produce, facilities of communication, the incidence of past assessment, the existence of profits from grazing and the like. These and other considerations must be allowed their weight.

"The gross assessments for each Settlement Circle having been framed by the Settlement Officer on the principles above indicated, revenue rates on soils may be deduced therefrom, and the proposed gross assessment, together with the proposed revenue rates, must be reported to the Government for preliminary sanction, and will, when sanctioned by the Local Government, form the basis of assessment of particular estates in the circle; but in the assessment to be ultimately adopted full consideration must be given to the special circumstances for each estate. The principle laid down in Rule I is to be observed in the assessment in each ease."

Officers of the Settlement.

The charge of the Settlement, as well as that of Karnal and Gurgáon, was entrusted to Mr. Oswald Wood, who remained in charge of the Delhi Settlement till November 3rd, 1877, when he gave over to Mr. Channing. After this Mr. Channing held office for a short time, with Mr. Wilson as 'Assistant'; and, on January 10th, 1878, Mr. Maconachie took over from the latter who had been in temporary charge. Mr. Maconachie brought operations to a close in 1880 and reported upon them in the same year.

Distribution of Ballabgarh villages by circles.

The area is 385 square miles with 283 villages. Extreme length 30, and breadth 20 miles. The assessment circles were six; and are described by Mr. Maconachie in his report in great detail.

IKhádar Bángar		•••	7	6 villages.
II.—Bángar	•••	***	٠ الم	- "
III.—Dahri Sailabá	***	***	* 2	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
IV.—Zerkobí	.,.	•••	3	- "
V.—Khandrát	•••	***	33	, ''
VI.—Kohi	***	***	### #J	-), -
		TOTAL.	28	3 villages.

General facts bearing on the assessment. The incidence of the revenue of the expired Settlement was a rule, distinctively light; and the increase of cultivation afford d an obvious presumption that a considerable increase of revenue was to be expected. This presumption was strengthened by the facts of the undoubted general development of the country; the improves

ment of the roads and communications, especially by the construction of the Mathra road, which opens up the tabsil through its whole length; and the rise in price of agricultural produce. The return of prices shows a rise in price more or less decided in the case of every staple, and there is no doubt whatever that this means, in a considerable degree, a rise in value also. These, then, were the grounds for expecting a large increase in assessment. The countervailing facts were the want of thrift common in many, perhaps most, villages; the poor character of much of the new cultivation; the loss of dahar in some parts; and the deterioration of soil, whether by the deposit of sand from the hills, obstruction of drainage by the canal, or the flooding of alluvial land by the Okhlah

The new assessment rates are shown below:—

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land Revenue.

General facts bearing on the assessment.

Revenue rates.

CHAE.	Innio	ATED.	Unirrigated.		
CHAR.	By wells.	Dahri.	Dakür. Ransli.	Bhūr.	
I.—Khádar { Khádar Bángar Bángar II.,—Bángar	2 12 0 2 12 0 3 0 0 2 12 0 2 12 0 3 8 0 2 8 0	:::: :::: :::: :::: :::: :::: :::: :::: ::::	1 C O 1 C O 1 8 O 1 10 O 1 C O 1 10 O 1 10 O 1 2 O	0 14 0 0 12 0 0 14 0 1 0 0 0 12 0 0 12 0	

The sanctioned revenue rates amounted to Rs. 2,36,646.

Average de-mand1871-72 Rerenuo Jama as final. CHAR. rates. ly assessed. to 1875-76. Khådar Bángar 46,233 53,698 50,355 79,126 893.49 03,005 Bangar... Dahri Sailábá 32,592 33,414 33,925 Zerkohi 21,319 21,743 21.810 Khandrát ... 889,9 13,791 12,540 16,325 Kohi 13.123 10,367 TOTAL OF TARSILI... 2,02,313 2,36,614 2,27,990

statement in the margin shows the result of the Assessment Chakwar in the Ballabgarh talisil.

Mr. Maconachie writes:-

"Viewed as a whole, the new assessment of the tahsil has raised the Government revenue by Rs. 27,577 or by 13.6 per cent. This includes the assessment of gardens and resumed máss, and allows for reductions in appeal. The presumptions already mentioned, verified and strengthened by the results of minute village to villago inspection, appear to warrant the increase taken; and there seems no reason to anticipate anything but a fair measure of prosperity for the tahsil in the future. The chief danger, of course, in a tract where such a considerable portion of the cultivation depends on rain, must always be drought, and this would be felt severely in several parts. The Kohi villages, lying high and dry, and the less protected villages in the Bángar, would be the first injured; and if the want of rain continued; the weaker villages throughout the tahsil would

Assessment.

Mr.

detailed

assessments reach-

ments was accord-

ingly Rs. 2,32,130,

that is, Rs. 4,516

below rates.

m Rs.~~2,40,360. The total of the

announce-

Wood's

actual

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land Revenue.

seesment circles

of Delhi takell.

feel it. But unless this calamity occurs to a marked degree, there should be no difficulty in collecting the revenue."

Some changes were made in the number of villages in Dahi tahsil during Settlement, which are detailed in Chapter II. The number of villages now is 288, divided into the following assessment circles:—

-					
I.—Khádar Bángar		•••	***	43 villages.	
II.—Bångar	***	***	***	93 ,	
III.—Dahrí Szilábá	• * •	***	***	73 ,,	
IV.—Zerkohí	***	***	***	39 .,	
VKhandrát	•••	***		17	
VI.—Kohi	•••	***	•••	22 ,,	
			•		
. Tot	AL			258 villages	
				-	

The area of the taheil is 425 square miles, and the greatest length and breadth are nearly equal at 25 miles, the average length 22 and breadth 19. A minute description of the several circles will be found in the Settlement Report.

Revenue rates.

The rates sanctioned for the several circles were as follows:—

-			· IEE16	GATED.	Usizzieliep, .		
			By well	Dahri.	Daker. Reusli	ELC.	
Khádar Bångar Bángar Dahri Zetkohi Kohi Khandrát	404 404 400 400 400	201 000 000 000 000 000	Rs. As. P. 3 4 0 3 0 0 3 0 0 2 12 0 2 4 0 4 0 0	Rs. As. P. 1 14 0 2 0 0 2 8 0 2 2 0 2 0 0 2 0 0	Ps. As. P. 1 8 0 1 8 0 1 6 0 1 2 0 0 15 0 1 12 0	Rs. As. P. 0 15 0 0 12 0 0 12 0 0 12 0 0 12 0 1 0 0	

Assessment

The results of the application of the rates are given below, together with the produce estimate, and the actual jama obtained by working out the detailed assessments:—

' Chae.	Average of five years 1872-73 —76-77.	Produce estimates.	Jama at Commis- sion-r's rates.	Jame et senctioned rates.	Jeme 17. Ermetî
Khédar Bángar Bángar Dahrí Zerkohi Kohi Khandrát Total	Rs. 23.834 1,63,562 89,477 22,114 11,322 8,237 3,18,643	Rs. 25,927 1,43,059 1,14,254 25,463 14,357 12,402 3,33,421	Rs. 19.584 1,55.559 94.613 25.692 13.359 3,24,437	B*, 19.257* 1,12.551* 90.57** 25.025 13.327 11.612	21 FT14 1.17.775 57.225 55.277 13.121 10.577

^{*}That is at dry rates, not including owner's rate as in the old jame. The latten year's average gives Rs. 48,158 for owner's rate for the taken. The amount of ultimate jama is Rs. 2,76,324; the initial jama is Rs. 2,75,552, allowing Rs. 772 as deferred revenue on protective leases. This is reconciled with the amount of the bere by making the following allowances:—Add to that amount Rs. 1866 is:

Chapter V. B.

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Revenue.

chak Dábar.

A special feature of the assessment in this tabsil was the formation of a chak Juil as already done in the neighbouring talisil of Gurgaon. Five villages lying lowest in the Najasgarh jhil were divided into two chaks, chak Ihil and chak Mustakil. Fluctuating assess-The latter only has in each case been assessed regularly. The ment in Jhil chak in arrangement for the chak Just is that the land will be assessed only when cultivated at rates varying with the crop as follows:—

Sugarcane, Rs. 6 per acre per annum to be taken only if the

crop ripens.

Melons and rabi jawar, Rs. 1-8 per acre per crop.

All other crops, Rs. 3 per acre per crop.

The cesses also are levied on the amounts thus due. These are the same rates as those used in Gurgáon. The system is popular. The villages were all suffering from over-assessment, or rather from inelasticity of assessment; and the relief given by adopting the new method was urgently required. The areas in each village of the chak Jhil are given below :-

		Mı	NIIAI.			MAI	LOUZAN	ı La	ND.		
·				Uncult	iraled.		Culti	raled	•		
Name of Village.	Toinl area.	Lakhiraj.	Barren.	Cultirabio wasto.	Lately abandoned.	Artificially irrigated.	Naturally irrigated.	Unirrigated.	Total.	Gardens and Groves.	Total Nalguzari land
Bahlolpur Dábar Páotah Zainpur Shikárpur Guman Heri	501 242 149 070 621		24 1 5 4	7 10 48 100 230	 8 3 		530 221 97 574 267		530 224 97 674 287		537 242 148 674 517
TOTAL	2,152		34	395	11		1,712		1,712		2,118

There are only two chaks in this tahsil, and their long boun- Assessment circles dary is for the most part easily defined. The Bangar lies to the west of the old bed of the Jamna, in the same way as the Khadar lies immediately west of the present bed. A great part of the Khádar, as before noticed, has probably been at different times under the flood or flow of the river, and the soil is generally more sandy than the Bangar; but there is an easily traced boundary running almost due north and south through the tabsil, where the Bingar begins with a rise, more or less sharp, to the west. For about half way

gardens separately assessed, and Rs. 246 for resumed mafts, and deduct Rs. 390 on account of land taken up for public purposes and the Rs. 772 above mentioned for wells = Rs. 2,75,552.

[†] In comparing the present with the former jama it must be remembered that assessments have not been announced on three villages, Audhaoli, Karthwara and .Khandrát Kalán, as being under direct lease from the district. These jamas may be put down as Rs. 25, Rs. 214 and Rs. 2,550 respectively; total Rs. 2,789. This brings the announced jama very near indeed to the jama at sanctioned rates; only Rs. 764 difference.

Land and Land Revenue. up from the south this boundary lies very near the line of the old imperial road; in the upper half it lies more to the west of that line. The Khadar has 110 villages, the Bangar, 129. Real, but more minute, differences may be shown by drawing irregular lines from north to south beginning at the east, and these variations are fully described in Mr. Maconachie's Settlement Report.

Development since Regular Settlement.

Since Settlement there has been a noticeable increase of barren in the Bángar chak from 20,144 acres to 22,687, and the latter figures are far below the truth. A still more serious point is that a considerable proportion of this waste is new, that is to say, the land now under cultivation was much of it formerly uncultivated, and sometimes considered unculturable. In place of this, land has fallen out of cultivation, as really barren through shor. So that the character of the soil available for expansion of cultivation has deteriorated, and is deteriorating more than might be imagined from the area statistics. The increase in the Khadar cultivated area would seem to have been made pretty equally from the "culturable" and the "unculturable" land. If not, a large extent of the formerly so-called "unculturable" has now been put down as "culturable." Probably both of these changes have taken place. The changes in cultivation and in irrigation may be summarised as follows:—

	Cultivated.	Uncultivated culturable.	Uncultivated unculturable.	Irrigated.
Bángar Khádar	-17 (01 per cent.) +19,643 (38 per cent.)	-2.040 (7.4 per cent.] -9,412 (19 per cent.)	+2,543 (12 per cent.) -8,328 (40 per cent.)	-4,653 (34 per cent.) -455 (1 per cent.)

The irrigated area does not include the canal irrigation, so that the falling off in the Bángar is not strange. The figures of the Khádar area are misleading. There has been no doubt an increase in the permanent means of irrigation; the mode of calculation must have been different; 1,509 new pakka wells have been sunk here. In the canal area there is a decrease of 13,495 acres, but this too is at least partly nominal. The last figures are those of the year of measurement, when irrigation was under the average.

The annual average for thirty years is 54,354 acres. The markets for Sunipat produce are, and indeed for a long period have been, good. The great population of Delhi is a valuable oulet for all kinds of grain and pulse, while Mirath on the other side of the Jamná takes a great deal of sugarcane, the most valuable of all crops. The general expansion of population has improved the market, and the same may be said of the improvements in road communications. There is the Grand Trunk Road, an inestimable boon for the heavy traffic, and the cross roads, though far enough from being what they ought to be, are considerably better than they were in 1842. Prices too have risen, and this rise is to some extent one in value as well as in price. In some crops the rising tendency has been uniform, as in the case of the important staples, sugarcane and wheat, gram, maize and bajra. For others the highest price was reached in the quinquennial period 1864 to 1869, which included the famine year 1868. It is not likely that the staples will fall to their old prices. Especially favourable



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CILL	:	Employed Comments of Comments	Than ai sundinne! seise.	- 1000 - 1000 - 100 - 10	Transfer The Best of Transfer The Transfer The Transfer	Titosi Political Plantage
Liufer Bioge		11:750 (17:155	Tairs: Leiper	lans Line	7±5%	757.50 2.50.50 2.50.50
Intel of televi		7.12.30E .	enke .	ensn	72.5%	40.04

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of experience for orders and from the less centrems. If it evided se emperatived unie ide uer green, die resti vi die reifin vi amemman in ide inig void de an increse on the whole of Re IL488. On this expedition is un likely to destine inst, and it would be a salaming for the remitation and (therefore) eventually for Government if it illi. This point is I deliver agreed those by all departments, and has indeed been remained efficiely in the Government frametings, which called for opinious as in the des way of resulving inigulian is the sand allages. His opinion then re mi cîî i de de dage i nedoi d exemis vî î itself induse the comindire to take less water and that till it is seen how far they are infinenced thus it would be premature to take other steps. Should It wore to be the sase that the autisticien inde it per him now to take unici les reteritor di collidero, eren unice ide civilitad i di conese in ils uniunthe of his estate then it seems to me the old assessment suchs kelf-onedermed, for it is shown that a forced and enhanting system of egricularie les desi prionei es decesser to mése doscile thangladj temporarily possible, the payment of the Government revenue. And I have, as said before, linds doubt than in a considerable degree, this vil happen. I expect that for a few years there will be a large feweres in the yearly area of omal infigation. Then there will be a kind of re-action and more water will be esked for. I do not edrise their all the requests of the saminative then be greated : but I do hope that the Irrigation Department will be able to bear the circle which a recurrence to infinite maler such circumances wish gui on idea amangements in other pans for the supply of which I singuly Dope that the mere fact of having once given up which will not of itself its considered a sufficient reason for refreing it altogether attenuits. The metter is of extreme importance: It is perhaps the thirting point within wil deside the question of prosperity or the reverse for the great body of more

Villages assessed at more than a "true City rates assess-T 27 1 2

"In his Settlement Secretary's No. 1850 in June 1850, the Financial Commissioner called for a list of those villages, which from the high rate of the incidence of their new assessment, might be thought to be rued at more than a true dry rates jame. A list was also called for of the Tages which, owing to exceptional and (it is to be hoped) temporary swamping and bei dreinege, ere now rated at something less than a true dry assessment. For the latter it will be provided that revision of the jame if necessary in the interests of Government shall take place after periods of five years. In my reply to this I stated that in the Delin takell no villages need be noticed prominently in this way as being assessed at higher than a true day rais: there are some indeed near Delhi, such as Azadour, Nimri, &c . with a high rate of incidence, but I think it almost certain that if emal irrigation ver decisively diminished they would sink wells, and if they did they would genbably be as well off as at present. "For Sunipat I mentioned four villages, Abriana, Balli Kriber.

villages throughout the district.

Pughthalla and Mohana as partially dependent on canal irrigation for their

ability to support the high assessment put on them; but I noted that they all could probably do with less water than they at present have, and that, before entering on any question of reduction of revenue as necessary on restriction of irrigation, it should be ascertained whether wells could not be sunk, and that if they could, little or no reduction could be necessary.

"In reply to the enquiry as to villages assessed at something less than a true dry assessment. I submitted a list of twenty villages, one in Delhi and 19 in Smilpat." But in doing so I laid stress on the fact that the best judges of any funrequestion arising as to revision of assessment would be the District Officers of the time, and that I should deprecate any action which would have the effect of embarrassing their free decision of each case on its merits. This point I urged also with regard to the villages assessed above the true dry rate; and at the same time I should not wish to stop or hinder enquiry into the case of other than those villages mentioned. Taken as suggestions merely, I believe the lists will be useful in a material degree, but they should not be considered as more than this."

The gardens in some parts of the districture numerous and very profitable. There has been, therefore, no necessity to observe the same liberal indulgence which has been exercised in this matter in the more arid tracts of Gurgáon. As a rule, the Delhi gardens have been assessed, and statement below shows what a considerable sum of revenue is thus obtained. In number they are as follows:—"In Delhi 359; in Ballahgarh 177; in Samipat 737. Registers have been prepared tabsiliear showing the extent, ownership, numbers and kinds of trees and assessment levied in each case. The gardens on which no revenue has been assessed and 52; the reasons for making the exception have been noted in the register.

Tansel		Let then 1 bigals.	Lees than b bigahe	Less then 10 bigalis.	Less than 20 bigahs.	Orer 20 bigalis.	Total.
Hallabgarlı Delki Sunipat	•••	39 71 828	63 163 310	00 00 83	18 31 12	4 16 1	177 . 369 737
Whole district	•••	434	615	130	GL	21	1,273

The extent of all the gardens is 2,665 acres, assessed at Rs. 4,684.

Protective leases on wells newly made or repaired were given under the pravisions of B. C. VII of 1866 in 98 cases. In Delhi 36; Sunipat 13; Ballabgarh 49. A table in the Settlement Report shows the total amount and the details of the revenue which Government, in order to protect capital from being taxed, has for the time surrendered; the land covered by the wells there treated is 902 acres.

It remains to show in a tabulated form the results of the new assessment for the whole district. In doing so the owner's rate is

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Revenue.

Villages assessed under a "true dry assessment."

Assessment of gardens.

Protective leases

The results of the new assessment.

^{*} The Sunipat villages were:—Anaudpur, Chitánn, Chatia Dewa, Jájí—Jahmalpur or Lohan Tibba, Juan, Jharaut, Jharauti, Khubrú, Kascorí, Koaltí, Khen Dahya, Mahipur, Nirthán, Rahimáva Salempur Turali, Saidpur, Thána Khurd, and Thana Kalan: the Delhi village was Holambi Kalán.

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Land and Land Revenue.

The results of the new assessments.

taken at the estimate formed from the average of the past ten years, but the actual amount may be expected to be considerably less, owing to the restriction of irrigation which it is to be hoped the people will themselves bring about, and which the new assessment was intended to encourage. This statement includes the assessments of gardens and resumed máfis, and the like; the amount here shown is, in fact, the full ultimate demand for the new assessment, except as regards the owner's rate.

Statement showing the results of revision of land revenue assessment in Delhi during the recently concluded Settlement.

Assessment Circle		Old jana avorage domand of the last* five years of ex- pired settlement.	Rorenuo ratos on revisod monsurements.	Jama announced.	Jama as rectuced in appeal and review, and incroused by assessment of gardens and resumed miss. &c.	Estimaled owner's rate.	Estimated total.	Estimated incroase of demand.
BALLABGARH TAHSH	<u>.</u>							
Khádar Bångar Bángar Dabri Sailába Zerkohí Kohi Khandrát	•••	46.233 79.126 32,592 21,349 13.123 9,889	94.598 33.414 21.743 19.367	94,310 34,025 22,350 17.965	93,903 34.145 22.079 16,403	******	50,716 93.903 34,146 22,076 16,403 12,644	+14.777 +1,553 +730 +3.280
TOTAL	•••	2,02,312	2,38.614	2,32,130	2,29,889		2,29,888	+27,577
DELHI TAHSIL.								1 1
Khádar Bångar Bángar Dábar Zerkobí Kobí Khandrát	•••	23,834 1 63,562 89,477 22,114 11,323 8,237	1,19,054 99,570 25,025	1,17,805 87,825 25,290 13,120	1,18.427 87.868 25,298 13,132	47.886 214	1,66,313	+2.751 -1.395 $+3.184$ $+1.810$
TOTAL	•••	3,18,546	2.78,915	2,75,471	 2,76,324	48,158	3,24,492	+5,936
SUNIPAT TARSIL.							•	
Rángar Khádar	•••	2,77.265 1,24 043	1,81.982 1,45.930	1,94 685 1,41,815		74,504	1,42.719	+19.676
TOTAL	•••	4,01,308	3.27,912	3,36.500	3.38,267	74,504	4,12,771	+11,463
GRAND TOATAL	•••	9,22,166	8,43,471	8,44,101	†8. 44, 480	1 22,662	9,67,142	+44,976

The kistlandi

The amount entered in the district kistbandí, after deductions on account of ináms to zaildárs and alá lambardárs, is Rs. 8,26,735

For Ballabgarh 1871-72-1875-76.

For Delhi ... } 1872-73-1876-77.

[†] And adding Rs. 2.789 for three villages held in lease we get Rs. 2,79,113 and Rs. 8,47,259 respectively as the jamas here.

which will be reconciled with the jama by making the following deductions from the latter:—

				Ru.	
Zaildárs' allowances	•••	***	•••	8,472	
Alá lambardárs	111	•••	***	5,747	-
Protective leases	***	••	• 4 •	1,957	
Progressive jamas	424	•••	•••	1,269	
Indm to zamindárs	441	444	• • •	300	
	Total	deductions		17.745 8,26,735	
				8.41.480	
				-	

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land Revenue.

The kistband?

The division of the yearly amount due as revenue into the two instalments of rahi and kharif was generally determined by the choice of the people themselves; but, as a rule, no village was allowed to pay less than four annas or more than twelve annas in either harvest. As a rule, the old proportions were generally maintained, and in some of the cases in which change was made, the alteration was palpably for the better.

Cesses to be levied are those in ordinary use, including the lambardári Rs. 5, local rates Rs. 8-5-4, dák 8 mms, school Re. 1, road Re. 1, and patráris as follows: Ballabgarh 41, Delhi 41, Sunipát 4 per cent. Cesses are levied on owner's rate. Under the new patrári arrangements the full rate will be enjoyed by the patrári only on measurements yielding up to Rs. 500 owner's rate. On measurements above this limit up to Rs. 1,000 he will get Rs. 2 per cent, while in measurements for more than Rs. 1,000 owner's rate he will get only 1 per cent. Jágírs have according to rule been assessed for the levy of cesses.

Before the recent Settlement the old rule was in force, by which no alterations due to river action were considered, unless they amounted to 10 per cent, of the culturable area of the village. This system worked great injustice, as the whole holding of an individual might be cast away, without his being able to obtain relief. Accordingly, in 1876 the new system was introduced, under which each case of di-alluvion is separately considered and dealt with on its merits. For revenue purposes the deep stream boundary is the general rule of decision.

Table No. XXX shows the number of villages, parts of villages, and plots, and the area of land of which the revenue is assigned, the amount of that revenue, the period of assignment, and the number of assignees for each tabsil as the figures stood in 1881-82. The mást investigations in the recent Settlement were important and protracted. The authority under which the enquiry was made is the letter No. 7481 of 29th October 1872, from the Secretary to Financial Commissioner, to Commissioner, Delhi. From this letter the following extracts are important, as regards the procedure to be adopted:—

(i).—All grants which can be shown to have been included in the registers of land released in perpetuity which were maintained before the Mutiny, either by the existence of

The instalments.

Cesses.

Assessment of di-

Assignments of land-revenue.

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land Revenue. Assignments of

, land-revenue.

authentic copies of those registers, or by the production of the certificates furnished to the holders, must be regarded in the absence of any express limitation by the terms of the grant, as hereditary and transferable. In these cases you will only have to ascertain that the present possession corresponds with the extent of the grant, and that the present holder can show a good title derived from the person whose name was originally entered in the register.

- (ii).—Life-grants were to be considered as non-transferable, and persons in wrongful possession were to be ousted, unless for any reason it should seem fit to make recommendation to the contrary.
- (iii).—In the case of grants under 10 bighas for religious or charitable purposes, included in the separate register of such grants, it will be necessary only to ascertain that the grants are still applied to such purposes, and that the area entered in the register is not exceeded.
- (iv).—Perpetual grants after 1858 were to be considered as not transferable, those made before the Mutiny as transferable.

With regard to the kind of máfi known as half-rates tenures, the instructions were to resume them ordinarily, unless for special reasons it seemed fit to recommend a continuance of the grant in the shape of a maft on part of the land in question. These concessions have almost uniformly been found to require no further continuance, and having come to the natural term of their grant viz., the end of the current Settlement, have been resumed; the area affected being put in with the khálsa area and assessed at

full rates.

The results of the máfi investigations are shown in the table on tatement showing the next page. The grants made for good service in the mutiny are separately detailed in the Settlement Report. The aggregate amount of assigned, revenue in the Delhi district is now Rs. 53,189.

Table No. XVII shows the area and income of Government estates; while Table No. XIX shows the area of land acquired by Government for public purposes. Government right, in the 99

villages in which it is sole or part proprietor, extends to 31,381 acres, of which 20,272 are assessable, and on which Rs. 25,540 is the estimated revenue. The property, therefore, is of very considerable importance. Its origin is confiscation at the Mutiny, of the private property of the king, of lands of máfidár proprietors grossly

mutinous, and of the property of the Raja, of Ballabgarh and of the Nawab of Jhajjar.

The private property of the king is called tail. The word is said to be derived from the Turkish, and to mean 'pocket', and may therefore be freely rendered as pocket money, or in a certain sense the peculium of the king. This property he acquired largely under the arrangements for his maintenance and privy purse in 1803, but there is reason to beleive that the Mughal Emperors always had private land held in direct property. After confiscation at the Mutiny, it

appears from the records of the Government office that protracted

Tafül.

mafis in Delhi.

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Chapter V, B.
Land and Land
Revenue.
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enquiry was made as to its value and extent. In his No. 521 of 17th December 1858, the Deputy Commissioner requested instructions on the point whether a title was to be held good, claiming 'freehold tenure' of taiúl property 'by right of gift or purchase from the ex-king or his immediate predecessors.' He also reported resumption of crown lands held under 'deeds granted by persons manifestly incompetent to alienate.' The Commissioner replied that as a rule all grants or sales made subsequent to 1803, when Shah Alam became pensioner of Government, were valid only during the life of the donor. He quoted among other authorities a rule of 1841 to this effect laid down by the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-West Provinces, and confirmed in the same year by the Supreme Government. This view was sanctioned by Secretary to Government's, No. 579 of 26th May 1859, and directions were given for the preparation of a register of taiúl property. This register was submitted (nearly nine years later) by the Deputy Commissioner (Mr. Fitzpatrick) under cover of his No. 144 of 15th April 1868. The Commissioner, in sending it up to Government, remarked that in some cases of sale, Rai Bansi Lal, Extra Assistant Commissioner, acting on the revenue side, had held that all rights were sold, i.e., mass, as well as proprietary rights, that these decisions not being judicial orders might be contested by Government if necessary, but that he considered this unadvisable. The Secretary to Government, in his No. 361 of 11th May 1868, concurred in this. When the register eame down a mistake was made as to the terms of Government orders, and sales were made of a few properties, which, on report for sanction being made, were disallowed by Government and cancelled. Systematic enquiry was directed by an Assistant Commissioner of the district 'who was to summon parties claiming against Government to file proofs of their title, and then to draw up draft plaints for the opinion of the Government advocate.' On this the point of law was referred as to the time of limitation running against Government, in suits to set aside alienations by the king of Delhi of proprietary right in taiúl villages. The Government advocate held that this was 60 years from the date of confiscation of the grant to the king, i.e., from 1857. After further correspondence on points of detail, the Financial Commissioner in his No. 6,598 of 16th September 1872, laid down the principles of investigation, making a division between urban and rural taiúl. For the former a special agency was appointed (Mr. G. L. Smith, Assistant Commissioner, who made his report in May 1876,) and the enquiry into rural taiúl, which included all cases save those properties inside the City of Delhi and the suburbs of Jehannuma and Khandrát kalan, in the towns of Indarpat, Farídábád and Ballabgarh, was made over to the Settlement Department to be carried on in connection with the investigation into máfi tenures. Distinction was drawn between:-

(1.)—The title of Government to proprietary right. (2.)—The right of occupants to hold revenue free.

And it was remarked that these rights were wholly independent of each other. Másis might exist on Government property,

and on the other hand occupants not admitting Government Chapter V. B. proprietary right would still have to prove any alleged right to hold revenue free. The Financial Commissioner further directed "that the proprietary right of Government should be asserted in each case and recorded in the Settlement papers, that a suitable rent should be fixed by the Settlement Officer, and that cases on which the right of Government is not admitted should be reported to the Deputy Commissioner, who should be instructed to eject the holders if there is good ground to believe the Government title to be a good one. The proprietary right of Government should be asserted whether the land is held revenue free or not, and a rent demanded as acknowledgment of the right." The report on proprietary right was to be kept distinct from that on maji tenures, while distinct mention was. to be made in the latter register as to whether the property belonged to Government or not. The investigations are not yet complete.

The Raja of Ballabgarh had proprietary right in the whole or in Ballabgarh villages part of 34 villages in his territory; and, at the Mutiny, these were confiscated, and settled with the zamindárs with the addition of a moderate malikáná, generally about 10 per cent. on the revenue. In 1872 when Settlement proceedings began, Mohammad Ali Shah, of Sardhána, petitioned to be allowed to purchase Government rights in these villages, offering Rs. 1,47,680 as the price. Government sent down for report: (1). Whether the Government title was good. (2). Whether there was much culturable land as yet uncultivated. (3). Whether the price offered was fair. The reply to this stated that the Government title was undoubted; that, so far as known then, the extent of málguzárí land would be as follows:—irrigated 2,000 acres; unirrigated 11,000; culturable 2,000; total 15,000 acres. Mr. Wood further estimated the value of the property at not less than Rs. 2,40,000. He suggested, however, that before sale, the rights of the tenants cultivating on the property should be ascertained, as many of them, though into tenant rights, not laying claim to ownership, were probably entitled to rights of This enquiry was directed under No. 469 of 16th March 1874, from the Secretary to Punjab Government to the Financial Commissioner, with the following principles laid down to guide the investigation :--

Orders for enquiry

(1)—The British Government succeeds to the rights, and only to the rights of the Ballabgarh Rájá,

(2)-Any cultivator who has been in continuous occupation, either in his own person, or in the person of his nucestors, for 12 years before annexation, should be admitted to rights of occupancy. This implies a modification of the Financial Commissioner's proposal, that those who have since the mutinies only, or only in their own persons and those of their fathers, resided in the village, should be entered as having no right of occupancy.

(3)—Questions of the right of absentee máfidárs are reserved

for decision as they come up.

(4)—The onus probandi lies rather on Government than on a cultivator of any length of standing.

Land and Land Revenue.

Taiùl.

belonging to

Government.

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Land and Land Revenue.

Reports on the tenant right.

Eight of the thirty-four villages belonged entirely to Government, and of the twenty-six remaining, eight had the Government rights already separate and distinct from those of the zamindárs; in seventeen they were as yet joint with the zamindars; and in one the rights were partly separate and partly joint.

The report on the separately held villages, and such part of Garhkhera as was already separate, was sent up under Settlement Officer's No. 267 of September 14th 1876, and orders were passed in Government letter No. 578 of 17th May 1877. The main points were-

1.—Rights of occupancy were conceded in 8,846 cases.

> Ditto ditto refused in Ditto ditto remained undecided in

2—Where rights of occupancy now granted affect absentee máfidárs, no such máfidárs should be allowed to contest such rights,

3.—The right now granted is under section 8 of the Tenancy Act; any parties claiming under section 5 can sue to establish the right.

With regard to the sale of the property, it was directed that (a) it should be made in portions or lots, not in a lump, and after reserving any lands necessary for grants; (b) the cultivators should ordinarily be allowed an opportunity of offering for the land sold. The report on the remaining villages, after partition had been made, was submitted in Mr. Maconachie's No. 292 of September 18th, 1879, and on this orders have not been passed. His proposals were to concede occupancy right in 839 bighas, 13 biswás, and refuse it

in 3,530 bighas, 6 biswás.

In 1878, four of the villages reported on by Mr. Wood were sold by auction. This was to raise money to pay Rai Bahadur Umrao Singh for the Fattehpuri Mosque property, which by the orders of His Excellency the Viceroy (Lord Lytton) was restored to The order for these sales the Muhammadan community of Delhi. was communicated under cover of the Punjab Government No. 1,189 of 28th August 1878, and at the auction held in pursuance thereof the prices obtained were, for Ballabgarh Rs. 64,500 sold to Rani-Kishen Kaur of the Rajas family.

Chandaolí Rs. 30,000 10,100 \sold to Amjad Ali of Faridabad. Chirsí 8,000) Tilaurí Bángar "

The sum required was Rs. 1,17,833-6, and the difference was met by appropriating a sum of Rs. 6,000 in deposit from the rent of the shops round the mosque. The surplus was given to the trustees of the building.

ale of four villages.

Chapter VI.

l'owns, Municipaities and Cantonments.

Delbi city. De triptita.

gate, by which the whole traffic of the Grand Trunk Read passes. The Rajputana Railway passes out of the city by the Kabui gate, while the Chandri Chank terminates in the Lahere gate. The eastern wall, abutting on the river, contains no gate of any importance.

The Mughal Polace, now the Fort, lies inside the city, situated in the centre of the castern or riverside. It is 1½ miles in circuit, and like the city is surrounded on three sides by lofty stone walls, the fourth side being open to the river-bed, which lies at the level of about 40 feet below the inside surface. The Fort is entered by two patest the Lahori gate to the west leading to the Chandri Chark, and the Delhi gate to the south, leading to the Faix bixin, and the Delhi gate of the city. The interior is now almost entirely chared of buildings, only a few relias of the old Mughal Polaces being allowed to stand. Their place has been taken by barracks for European troops. Outside, towards the city, a space of 300 years in width has, since the Mutiny, been completely cleared of buildings, which in former days came close up under the Fort walls.

To the south of the Fort, the eastern portion of the city, abutting on the river, and known as Daria Gaid, is occupied by a cantonment, in which are the quarters of a Native Regiment, which, with one wing of a European Regiment, complete the force usually

stationed by way of garrison at Deibi.

Untside the Forest its north-sect corner and outrespected with it by a bridge, is the massive fort Salingarh, cremed in the 16th century by Salim Shah; and at this point the East Indian Railway enters the city by a magnificent bridge coress the Jamus. The line passing over Selfingurh, and through a corner of the Fort, mus on to the station inside the walls. The line has lately been continued for the Reinstains State Reilway, and after traversize the city, presenthrough the wall on the operate, or conti-sem side In the north-east corner of the city, within the walls, and elese to the Kashmirgate, lie the Traspry, District Courts, and other cities ; while immediately to the groth of these lie the Church and the Telegraph and Post offices. Thus Daria Ganj. the Fort, the public offices and the Railway, form an almost continuous line clong the eastern and northern faces of the city; and the angle between them is occupied by the public gardens. The quarter thus complete amounting to nearly half the whole city, presents a comparatively open appearance, and is distinctly marked off and separate from the denser pertion lying to the south-west, and complete by the shops and dwelling-houses of the native population.

A short drive through the Queen's Gardens and amoustive Railway, leads out by the Kashmir or Mori gate into the Civil Lines. Beyond these, on the north-west side of a city, runs a low line of rocky hills, known as the Ridge, which ends on the banks of the Jamma about a mile above the city, and forms a very prominent object from the surrounding country, and is possessed of great historical interest as the vantage ground from which the English

¹ Price to the Markey ISSI, the maximum was to the north of the Illiga about two miles from the city.

batteries played upon the city in the siege of 1857. From the summit of this Ridge, the view of the station and city is very picturesque; in the foreground the houses and gardens of the English lities and Cantonresidents, thickly interspersed with trees, and in the distance the city wall surmounted here and there by tall acacias, while over all rise Delbi city. Descripthe minarets of the Jama Masjid and the Fort. But perhaps the most striking view is that of the eastern face of the Palace, which greets the traveller as he crosses the Junua Railway bridge on his entrance into the city. Outside the city to the west and north-west lie some considerable suburbs. The largest, that of Sabzi Mandi. lines the Grand Trunk Road on either side for a considerable distance. Less important are the Sadr Bazar and Teliwara. Further south the main suburh is that of Pahar Ganj. The Commissioner's office is situated outside the city, adjoining his private residence, a large: castellated house in the Civil Lines known as Ludlow Castle. The cantonments are situated partly inside the fort and partly outside. The European force occupies the fort; and the native force, with their European officers, that portion of the town known as Darvá Gani between the fort and south wall of the city. In the Civil Lines also, separating them from the Ridge, is a small space known as the cavalry lines, occupied by a troop of native cavalry commanded by a native officer.

The buildings of the town are for the most part of brick, and are well built and substantial. Many of the smaller streets are narrow and torthous, and end in many cases in culs-de-sac; but on the other hand, no city in India has tiner streets than the main thoroughfares of Delhi. There are no less than ten main streets, thoroughly metalled, drained, and lighted. The town is traversed by two main thoroughfares, running respectively from east to west, and north to south. The former, known as the Chondai Chauk, is some three-quarters of a mile in length; it leads from the Lahore gate of the fort to that of the city, and is probably one of the finest native streets in India. It is about 50 yards wide, and has a pavement on each side, and one in the middle, planted with a double row of trees, mostly nim and pipul, with a double road for vehicular traffic. The middle footpath is built over the masonry aqueduct which conducts water from the caual into the fort. second main road leads from the Kashmir gate on the north to the Dehli gate on the south, passing the district offices, the church, the Delhi College, the dak bungalow, the telegraph and post offices. It then descends an incline, goes under the railway bridge of the East Indian Railway, and again ascends an incline, crosses the Western Janua Canal, passes between the Fort and the Jama Masjid, cutting the Chandni Chank at right angles. and after traversing the Faiz bazar leaves the city at the Delhi gate. Besides those above-mentioned, there are two other broad roads running east and west to the north and south of the railway from the Calcutta to the Kibul gates. These are lined with trees, and give an air of freshness and verdure to the city. The streets are well paved. The drainage and water-supply, however, are not good, but steps are being taken to drain the city, and to supply the inhabitants with good drinking water. The best drinking water

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Towns, Municipalities and Cantonments.

Delhi city. Description.

is obtained from the Ridge, but that is some distance off, and beyond the reach of the poorer inhabitants of the city. Quite the finest building within the walls is the Jama Masjid

built in the reign of Shah Jehan (1629-58), and said to have cost

Rs. 10,00,000. It is situated on a rocky eminence a little to the south of the Chandni Chauk, and to the east of the open space cleared round the fort, with three entrances approached by broad flights of steps on the south, east, and north sides. The finest entrance is that on the east side; the other two are to a considerable extent confined by adjacent buildings. It is built of red sandstone, and consists of a large quadrangle with the mosque itself on the west The mosque itself is of oblong form, 201 feet by 120 feet, and is surmounted by three white marble cupolas with spires of gilded copper. On the north and south sides are two minarets composed of alternate stripes of white marble and red sandstone placed vertically, about 130 feet high, from which extensive views are obtained. Another building of antiquarian interest is the Kála Masjid, near the Turkmán gate, built by Feroz Sháh in It is now falling into decay, and is mainly of interest as being a remnant of a former city. Inside the fort are to be found some of the finest buildings in Dehli. The Lahore gate of the Fort, built of red sandstone, leads into a "long and lofty vaulted arcade with an octagonal opening at the centre to admit light and venti-This is now used as a bazár where supplies are sold for the benefit of the European soldiers of the Fort. On emerging from the Lahore Gate the Diwan-i-Aam, or Hall of Public Audience, comes It is a large hall enclosed at the north, but open on the other three sides, and supported by red sandstone pillars. It is now used as a canteen. Further on, close to the river, is the handsomest building in the Fort, known as the Díwán-i-Khás, or Hall of Private Audience. It is a pavilion of white marble, supported on pillars of the same material, the whole of which are, or were, richly ornamented with flowers of inlaid mosaic work of cornelian and other stones. In former times it must have been far more magnificent than at the present time, but it was greatly despoiled after the break-up of the Mughal Empire about the middle of the 18th century. In this building was formerly set up the Peacock Throne, carried away by Nádir Sháh, the Persian conqueror, in 1739 A.D. Close to the Diwán-i-Khás is the Moti Masjid, also of marble, the private mosque of the Em-

Another building worth mention is the Institute in the Chandni Chauk, a large red brick building, forming three sides of a quadrangle. It is in European style, erected by the Municipal Committee; and is used as a Museum, Town Hall, Darbar Room, and Library for the European residents; and opposite this is the Clock Tower in the centre of the Chandni Chauk, about 130 feet high, with four faces. Other buildings worth a passing notice are the Church, built by Colonel Skinner, the Fattehpuri Masjid, the Delhi College, the Post Office (occupying the building known as the Magazine), the Mor Serai, and the East Indian Railway Station.

peror and his family, much injured during the Mutiny.

There are several fine gardens, both inside and outside the city. The Queen's Gardens, in the centre of the town, between the railway and the Chandni Chauk, made by order of Jehanara Begam, the daughter of the Emperor Shah Jehan, are largely used as a Towns, Municipapleasure resort by both natives and Europeans. Beside the gardens lities and Cantonproper there is a well supplied menagerie which attracts large crowds. Besides the Queen's Gardens, the gardens round the Delhi city. Descrip-Delhi Bank are worth a visit. This house and gardens formerly belonged to the Begam Samru, a celebrated chieftainess, whose husband, a Frenchman of the name of Sombre, was in the service of the Mahrattas. Outside the city, near the Kashmir gate, are the Kudsia Gardens, which owe their origin to Kudsia Begam; and between the Sabzi Mandi and the canal are the Rushanara and Sirhindi Gardens, now forming one large and beautiful garden, including the tomb of Rushanara Begam, another of the daughters of Shah Jehan, and the favourite sister of the Emperor Aurangzib.

It is not proposed to give a detailed account of the objects of antiquarian and historical interest of Delhi and its environs. The subject has been elaborately dealt with by General Cunningham in his Archæological Reports, I, 132 to 231; IV, i to xvii and 1 to 91; V, 142 to 144; by Mr. Carr Stephen in his Archæology of Delhi; and in the Asiatic Society's Journals, supplementary number of Vol. XXXIII, 1864, page 375; 1866, page 199; 1870, page 70; and there are several guide-books,* which contain every detail which a visitor will care to know. Short descriptions of the most remarkable monuments of antiquity will be given in their appropriate places in the following historical sketch, and a brief notice of some of the most remarkable buildings will be found below; but nothing more will be attempted. The historical sketch itself is merely an attempt to string together, in a readable form, a narration of the most remarkable events in the history of the city. An interesting account of Delhi, as it was in 1823, will be found in Selections from the Asiatic Society's Journal, II, 577. Though possessing no peculiar qualifications from a physical point of view, the neighbourhood of Delhi has, from the carliest dawn of Indian history, been the site of a capital city. Within a distance nowhere exceeding 11 or 12 miles from modern Delhi, city after city has risen upon the ruins of its fallen predecessors, until the debris of old buildings has been estimated to cover an area of more than 45 square milest from Tughlakábád, ten miles to the south, to the Kuth Minar, six miles to the west. First upon this list of cities stands the name of Indraprastha, a city founded, probably during the latter part of the 15th century B.C., by the Aryan colonists of India, when first they began to feel their way down the banks of the Jamna. The Mahábhárata tells us how the five Pándavas, Yudisthira and his brothers, leading a body of Aryans from Hastinapur upon the Ganges, expelled or subdued the savage Nagas, and cleared their land of forest; how they built the city of Indraprastha, and grew into a great Kingdom; and how they fought and overcame

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History.

The best is perhaps that of Mr. H. G. Keen.
At the northern and the breadth of the rulus is about three miles, at the southern. end about six miles. Bishop Heber describes this space as "a very awful sec. desolation."

Chapter VI.

Towns, Municipalities and Cantonments.

History.

their kinsmen, the Kauravas. And then the history loses itself again in the confused chronology of the Puránas.

The city of Indraprastha was built upon the banks of the Jamna, between the more modern Kotila of Firoz Shah and Humayún's tomb, about two miles south of the present site of Delhi. The river has now shifted its course more than a mile eastwards, but its ancient bed can still be traced past the site of Indraprastha. The Nigambod Ghat, near the old Calcutta gate of the present city, is believed to have formed a part of the ancient capital; but with this exception, not a stone of it remains standing. Its name, however, is preserved in that of Indrapat, one of the popular names for the small town and Muhammadan fort of Purána Kila, the site of which must be almost identical with that of the ancient city. Yudisthira, according to the Bhágavata Purána, was succeeded on the throne of Indraprástha by 30 generations of the descendants of his brother Arjuna, until at last the line was extinguished by the usurpation of Visarwa, minister of the last King. Visarwa's family retained the sceptre for 500 years, and was succeeded by a dynasty of 15 Gautamas or Gotamavansas, who were in turn followed by a family bearing the name of Mayura.

This brings the history by one rapid stride down to the middle of the first century B.C., the period at which the name of Delhi first makes its appearance. The city too had spread or been removed some miles further to the south, as far as the site now occupied by Kutb-ud-din's Mosque and the Kutb pillar. General Cunningham would appear to attribute the foundation and name of the new city to a Rájá Dilu, apparently the last of the Mayura dynasty, and identifies it with Ptolemy's Daidalar. The commonest form of the old name is "Dilli." In one place, however, General Cunningham has found it spelt "Dillipur." And there is a tradition extant, which attributes the foundation of the city to Raja Dillípa, the ancestor in the 5th generation of the Pándava brothers. But this tradition may probably be dismissed as an ignorant invention; for Dilli is universally acknowledged to be of much later date than Indraprástha. The most popular tradition, adopted by Ferishta, and accepted as probably correct by General Cunniugham, is that which attributes the city to Rájá Dilu or Dhilu. Dhilu appears to have been the last of his dynasty, and to have been overthrown by a King of the Scythian dynasty, known as that of the Su or Sakas. The Saka conqueror, whose name is variously given as Sukwanti, Sukdat, and Sakaditya, was himself overthrown a few years later by the famous Vikramáditya, the date of whose accession, B.C. 57, is the initial year of the Samvat era.*

From this period Dilli is again lost sight of for several centuries. There is, indeed, a widespread tradition that it was deserted for 792 years. This, however, cannot be accepted without reservation; for in the erection, during the 3rd or 4th century A.D., of the famous iron pillar of Rája Dháva, there is strong evidence that the site was occupied. The erection of this pillar must have been the work of a prince having pretension, at any rate, to great power; for

^{*} General Cunningham places the defeat of the Sakas 135 years later, in A.D.87.

the inscription upon it records that he "obtained with his own arm the inscription upon it records that he "obtained with his own arm an individed sovereignty on the earth for a long period." The pillar still exists, standing in perfect preservation where it was littles and Canton-ments. originally planted; and is a proof that, though Delhi may not have been at this time a great metropolis, yet it was, at any rate, a city of considerable importance.

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The pillar of Raja Dhava is one of the most enrious monuments in India. It is a solid shaft of Wronght-iron* 23 feet 8 inches in length, the shaft 20 feet 2 inches, of which 181 feet are above ground, and the capital 31 feet. The diameter of the shaft increases round, and the capital of feet. The mamerer of the shall increases he ground the shaft expands in a bulbons form to a diameter of the standard of the shall be standard of the shall be standard of the standa 2 feet 4 inches, and rests on a gridiron of iron bars let into the stone pavement with lead. Although there are flaws in many parts, yet this hardly dinninishes the wonder caused by the manufacture of this monster pillar in those early times; and it is equally startling to find, that, after exposure to wind and rain for at least fourteen centuries it is unrusted and the capital and inscription are as clear and as sharp now as when it was first erected. The pillar records its own history in a deeply cut Sanskrit inscription in six lines on its western face. This has been deciphered by Mr. James Prinsep, who remarks that "the pillar is called the arm of fame (kirtti bhuja) of Rájá Dháva; and the letters ent upon it are called the typical cuts inflicted on his enemies by his sword, writing his immortal fame." It also records in the words aheady quoted, that Rájá Dháya "obtained with his own arm an undivided sovereignty on the earth for a long period." Mr. Prinsep, who first deciphered the inscription, refers it to the third or fourth century A.D., and General Cunningham, endorsing his opinion, has suggested the year A.D. 319 as an approximation to the date, thinking it not nowarful Cunta demonstry an avent which is fixed to have accurred in powerful Gupta dynasty, an event which is fixed to have occurred in that year. Journal As. Soc., VII., p. 630. But Mr. Prinsep's reading has since been declared to be erroneous, and subsequent cholars have been unable to find the name of Rájá Dháva. Mr. derguson writes: "My own conviction is that it belongs to one of the Chandra Rájas of the Gupta dynasty, consequently either to A.D. 363 or A.D. 400."

Other traditions, taking various forms, concur in connecting the erection of the pillar with Bilan Deo, or Anang Pal, founder of the Tomára (Túnwar) dynasty, who flourished in the eighth century. He is said to have been assured by a learned Brahman that as the foot of the pillar had been driven so deep into the ground that it rested on the head of Vasuki; King of the Serpents, who supports the earth, it was now immovable, and that dominion would remain in his family as long as the pillar stood. The Rája doubting the

^{*} The pillar is usually described as of "mixed metal," resmbling bronze. Genpillar to Dr. Murray Thomson for analysis, who pronounced it to be "pure malleable of the Schools of Mines, London.

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truth of the Brahman's statement, ordered the pillar to when the foot of it was found wet with the blood of the King. The iron pillar was again raised; but owing to former incredulity, every plan now failed in fixing it firm spite of all his efforts it still remained loose (dhila) in the and this, according to these traditions, is said to have origin of the name of Dhili. Various other forms of the are given, some of which have no reference to a propher bility. Moreover, the name Delhi is undoubtedly older eighth century, and General Cunningham, with some prefers the origin of these traditions to a late period in the former of the Tomáras, when the long duration of their rule have people to compare its stability to that of the iron pillar; and refer the story above related to the reign of Anang Pal II., with inscribed on the shaft with the date of Sambat 1109, or all

The foundation of the Tomara (Tunwar) demasty by better known as Anang Pal, is fixed by General Cunni grounds which he considers "more than usually firm Indian history," to have taken place in 736 A.D. Anang ed Dehli, and he and probably several of his successors, me capital. But the later Rajas of the dynasty are believe resided at Kanoj. In the middle of the 11th century Ar would appear to have been expelled from Kanoj by Cha founder of the Rahtor dynasty of that city, and once n became the Tomára capital. Anang Pál II. rebuilt and a city, surrounding it with a massive fort named Lal Kot,* to of whose walls are still believed to exist in a line of grand that circle the site of the Kuth Minar. This restoration recorded, and its date fixed by an inscription upon Ra pillar—" in Sambat 1109" (corresponding to 1052 A.D.) " peopled Dilli."

Just a century later, during the reign of Anang Pal III. the Tomara line, Delhi was taken by Visala Deva, Choha Ajmír. Anang Pál was left in possession, but only as a trib his daughter married the son or grandson of the conquer this union was born the famous Prithi Raj or Rai Pit became the adopted son of Anang Pál, and on his death su his throne, thus uniting the Tomaras and Chohans under During this reign the fort of Lál Kot was further strengths exterior wall which ran round it northwards from its north-south-east corner, while the old fort rose above the ground and formed a citadel to the new fortification. Prithi Rilast Hindu ruler of Dehli. In 1191 came the first i

† Rai Pithora's fort is 4 miles and 3 furious in circuit. The was be traced for a considerable distance. It appears to have been so height of Lai Kot.

^{*} J. A. S. p. 151. The fort of Iál Kot is of an irregular rout form. 24 miles in circumference. The walls, by General Canninghar ments, are 28 or 30 feet in thickness, having a general height of 60 fe bottom of the ditch, which still exists in very feir order all round the on the south side. About half the main walls are standing as firm a when first built. Three gateways to the west and north are distinct?

The existence of a fort of this name is doubted by Mr. C. J. Campil Asiatic Society of Bengal Vol. 35, Part I, p. 206) whose arguments are supplemented by the author of "The Archæology of Deblin p. 22.

Muhammad Shahab-nd-din of Ghor, and though he was defeated by Prithi Raj on this occasion, he returned two years later and utterly Towns, Municipaoverthrew the Hindus in the great battle of Tilanvi. Prithi Raj lities and Cantonwas captured and put to death, while Dehli itself, falling during the same year into the hands of Kutb-ud-dín, one of Shahab-ud-dín's Generals, became from that time forwards the metropolis Muhammadan Empire in India.

During the lifetime of his master, Kuth-ud-din held Dehli as his

Viceroy. But his death in 1206 was followed by the dissolution of his empire, and Kuth-nd-din became independent sovereign of India with Dehli as his capital. He was by origin a Turki slave, and the dynasty founded by him is known as that of the Slave Kings. to this dynasty that Dehli owes most of its grandest ruins. great mosque of Kntb-nd-din was commenced immediately after the capture of Dehli in 1193, as recorded in an inscription over the inner archway of the eastern entrance. It was finished in 1196, and enlarged during the reign of Altamish, son-in-law of Kuth-uddín. The famous Kuth Minar was also begun by Kuth-ud-dín about the year 1200, and was finished by the same Altamish in 1220. The mosque consists of an inner and an outer courtyard, of which the inner is surrounded by an exquisite colonnade or cloister, the pillars of which are made of richly decorated shafts, the spoils of Hindu temples, piled one upon the other in order to obtain the required height. As originally set up, the whole must have been thickly covered over with a coat of plaster, to conceal the idolatrons emblems, unendurable to Musalman eyes, with which they are profusely decorated. But at the present day the plaster has fallen and left the pillars standing in their pristing beauty. Ferguson attributes these pillars to the minth or tenth century A.D. The glory of the mosque, however, is not in these Hindu remains, but in the Kuth Minar and the grand line of arches that closes its western side, extending from north to south for about 385 feet. They are eleven in number, three greater and eight smaller. The central arch is 22 feet wide and 53 feet high. The larger side arches are 24 feet 4 inches wide and about the same height as the centre one, while the smaller arches are of about half these dimensions. Their general design is probably Muhammadan, but the actual building was apparently left to Hindu architects and workmen. The principle of construction is the same as that of the Hindu dome, the building being carried up in horizontal courses as far as possible, and then closed in by long slabs meeting at the top. The whole is covered with a lacework of intricate and delicate carving, also the work of Hindu hands. Iban Batuta, who saw the mosque about 150 years after its erection, describes it as having no equal either for beauty or extent.

The Kuth Minar stands in the south-east corner of the outer court-There has been of late years much speculation as to the origin of the Kuth Minar, whether it is a purely Muhammadan building or a Hindu building altered and completed by the conquerors. latter is the common belief of the people, who say that the pillar was built by Rai Pithora for the purpose of giving his daughter a view of the river Jamna. General Cunningham, with more proba-· bility, insists strongly that the entire building is Muhammadan.

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was probably constructed as a Mazima or Muazzam's tower, from which the call to morning and evening prayer might be heard in ail parts of the town; and it was probably commenced by Kutb-ul-din Aibak from whom it derives its name about the year 1200 A.D. The height of the Minar as it now, stands is 238 feet 1 inch, with a base diameter of .47 3 fect inches, and an upper diameter of nearly nine feet. The shaft is divided into 5 storcys, separated by balconies decorated with ornamental bands. The column is built of red sandstone, of which the lowest is 94 feet 11 inches in height and the highest 22 feet 4 inches, the two together being just equal to half the height of the column. The intermediate storcys are 50 feet 81 inches, 40 feet 31 inches, and 25 feet 4 inches, respectively. these threestoreys, the lowest has semi-circular fluting, the next augular fluting, and the third is a smooth cylinder. The circular shaft of the topmost storey is decorated with ornamental bands of marble and red sandstone; on each storey are numerous inscriptious. plinth is 2 feet in height and is a polygon with 24 sides; and the base of a broken cupola, also 2 feet high, makes up the total of 2381. A spiral staircase of 179 steps leads to the present summit. In 1803 the cupola, which formerly crowned the edifice, was thrown down and the whole pillar seriously injured by an earthquake. It was repaired by Major Robert Smith, who substituted for the fallen cupola, "a flaming Mughal pavilion" utterly out of keeping with the Pathan architecture of the pillar. This was taken down in 1847 or 1848 by order of Lord Harding. The summit is now surrounded by a simple iron railing. At a distance of 425 feet due north from the pillar stands the unfinish Minar of Ala-ud-din, commenced in A.D. 1311, which was intended to double in its proportions the Minar of Kutb-uddin. It reached a height of 87 feet, but at this point building ceased. The site chosen for the great mosque was that already occupied by the iron pillar of Raja Dhava, which forms the centre ornament of the inner courtyard. Round the mosque are scattered the remains of palaces and tombs, forming, as has been said, "the most interesting group of ruins which exists in India, or perhaps in any part of the world." No description, however, can be here attempted. The house of the Slaves retained the throne until 1288, when

it was subverted by Jalal-ud-din Ghilzai (Khilji). The most remarkable monarch of the dynasty thus founded was Ala-ud-din, already alluded to, during whose reign Delhi was twice exposed to attack from invading hordes of Mughals. On the first occasion Ala-ud-din defeated them under the walls. On the second, after encamping for two months in the neighbourhood of the city, they retired without a Relieved from the danngers of this invasion, Ala-ud-din built the fort of Siri or Shahpur, a little to the north of the present town, on the spot where he had entrenched himself to oppose the Mughala, and creeted in it the celebrated palace of the thousand pillars. The house of Ghilzai came to an end in 1321 and was followed by that of Tughlak. Hitherto the Musalman kings had been content with the ancient Hindu capital, altered and adorned to suit their taste, But the new dynasty had a passion for great public works, and one of the first acts of Ghiyas-ud-din, its founder, was to erect a new capital about four miles further to the east, which he called, after his own

name, Inghlakabad. Selecting a rocky eminence for his site, he surrounded the new city with a magnificent wall of massive stone Towns, Municipa-crowning the whole with a citadel of enormous strength. The ruins lities and Cantonof this grand old fort present in modern days a scene of utter desolation. The eye can still trace the streets and lanes of the deserted city, but with the exception of the thin smoke of a Ghjar village rising in the distance, there is not a sign of life within or around. And the desolution serves perhaps to heighten the impression produced by the size, strength and the visible solidity of the stern and massive walls.

The fort is in the shape of an irregular half circle. Its base towards the south is 11 miles in length, and the whole circuit 1 furlong less than 4 miles. It stands on a rocky height, and is built of large plainly dressed blocks of stone, some of which are so heavy and massive that they must have been quarried on the spot. Ome of the largest has been measured and found to be 14 feet in length by 2 feet 2 inches and 1 foot 10 inches in breadth and thickness. The faces towards the north-west and east are protected by a deep ditch, and the long face to the south by a large sheet of water, held up at the south-east corner by an endandment. On this side the rock is scarped, and above it the main walls rise to a mean height of 40 feet with a parapet of 7 feet, behind which rises another wall of 15 feet, the whole height above the plain being upwards of 90 feet. south-west angle is the citadel which rises above the fort, occupying about one-sixth of its area and containing the rains of an extensive palace. The walls, like these of Egyptian buildings, slope very rapidly inwards, and their foot is commanded by low slanting loopholes in the ramparts. The whole of this great work is said to have been constructed within two years, from 1321 to 1323; and if this seems incredible, four years is the utmost limit, for it is admitted on all hands to have been completed during the reign of Chiasaddin who died in 1325. Ghiásuddin was sneeceded by his son Muhammad Tughlak who reigned from 1325 to 1351. This is the king who is described by Elphinstone as "one of the most accomplished princes, "and most furious tyrants, that ever adorned or disgraced human "nature." Among other freaks more immediately concerning the city of Delhi, he three times attempted to remove the capital of his empire to Deogiri in the Dekkan. Three times did he order the inhabitants of Delhi to abandon their homes and travel to the new city, a distance of 800 miles, along a road which he caused to be planted with full grown trees. On each occasion they were allowed to return, but the journeys were, of course, fraught with ruin and distress to thousands, and caused a prodigious loss of life. The state of the city under this reign is described by Ibn Batúta, a native of Tangiers, who visited the court of Mnhammad about 1341. He presents just such a "picture of mixed magnificence and desolation as one "would expect under such a sovereign." He describes Delhi as a most magnificent city, its mosque and walls without an equal on earth; but although the king was then repeopling it, it was almost a desert. "The greatest city in the world," he says, "had the fewest inhabi-

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tants." Of the tomb of Ghiásuddin Tughlak the following description occurs in the Archeology of Delhi:

" It is situated in the midst of an artificial lake, fed by the overflowing of the Hauz Shamsi and by a lot of natural drains which flowed into the base of the fort, and which at one time must have formed one of its natural defences. It is surrounded by a pentagonal outwork, which is connected with the fortress by a causeway 600 feet in length, supported on 27 arches. In plan, the tomb is a square of 381 feet interior, and 611 feet exterior The outer walls are 38% feet in height to the top of the battledimensions. ment, with a slope of 2.333 per foot. At this rate the whole slope is 75 feet in 381 feet. The walls at base are 111 feet thick, and at top only 4 feet; but the projecting mouldings of the interior increase the thickness of the wall at the springing of the dome to about 6 or 7 feet or, perhaps more, for I had no means of making measurements so high up. The diameter of the dome is about 34 feet inside and about 44 feet outside, with a height of 20 feet; the dome is of marble, striped with red stone. The whole height of the tomb to the top of the dome is 70 feet, and to the top of the pinnacle (which is made of-red stone) about 80 feet. Each of the four sides has a lofty doorway in the middle, 24 feet in height, with a painted horse-shoe arch, frettedon the outer edge. There is a small doorway only 5 feet 10 inches in width, but of the same form, in the middle of the great entrances, the archway being filled with a white marble lattice screen of bold pattern. The decoration of the exterior depends chiefly on difference of colour, which is effected by the free use of bands and borders of white marble on the large sloping surfaces of red stone. The horse-shoe arches are of white marble, and a broad band of the same goes completely round the building at the springing of the arches. Another broad band of marble in upright slabs, 4 feet in height, goes all round the dome just above its springing. The present effect of this mixture of colour is certainly pleasing, but I believe that much of its beauty is due to the mellowing hand of time which has softened the crude redness of standstone as well as the dazzling whiteness of the marble. The building itself is in very good order." Archæological Reports, Vol. I. p. 653.

Muhammad Tughlak added to the strength of the city by a wall stretching north-east, and enclosing all the suburbs as far as the fortof Siri erected by Ala-ud-dín, and to this quarter of the city he gave the name of Jahán-panáh. By this addition the ancient town attained its utmost growth. But the period of its decline was at hand. For the very next king, Fíroz Sháh Tughlak, transferred the seat of government to a new town, which he founded several miles to the north of the Kutb, and called after his own name, Fírozábád. buildings connected with this city appear to have extended from Húmáyun's tomb on the south to the ridge beyond the modern city on the north. The ruins, however, are very imperfect, and it is impossible to trace the exact form even of its citadel or palace, which lay just outside the southern gate of the modern city. The principal remains of this city are the Kale Masjid near the Turcoman gate, and Fíroz Sháh's fort near the Delhi gate. In the midst of its ruins stand the famous pillar of Asoka, better known as Firoz Shah's láth, fixed upon the summit of the three-storeyed building known as Fíroz Shah's kotila. The láth was brought by Fíroz Shah from a spot near Khizrábád, on the Jamna, near the place where that river issues

from the hills, and identified by General Cunningham as being in the immediate neighbourhood of the nucient city of Srugna. Towns, Municipa-It contains an inscription of the celebrated ediets of Asolia lities and Cantonissued in the middle of the third century B.C. The inscription is in the ancient Pali form of Sauscrit, and its deciphering by Mr. James Prinsen is among the greatest triumphs of modern scholarship.

As to the population of Delhi at this period, General Cunningham thinks that that of Firozabad cannot have been less than 150,000, even if only a part of the space enclosed by it was inhabited. He would also reckon the population of ald Delhi to be about 100,000, thus making up the total number of inhabitants of the two cities to a quarter of a million. By most, however, this

estimate will probably be considered excessive.

The history of the successors of Firoz Shih presents a succession of fierce commotions and sanguinary broils, which devastated alike the capital and the empire at large, until, at last, during the reign of Muhammad Tughlak, the invasion of Tamerlane hurst upon the contending parties and overwhelmed them in a common rain. After carrying fire and sword through the Punjub, Tamerlane reached Delhi in December 1398. The King fled to Gujrat, and his army was defeated under the walls of Delhi. The city surrendered on a solemn promise of protection; and Tamerlane entering was publicly proclaimed Emperor. The promise of protection, however, availed but little. Plander and violence, begun by the commering army, brought on resistance; and then followed a scene of horror bafiling description. The whole city was for five days given up to a general massacre, and such was the slaughter, that many streets were rendered impassable by heaps of dead. Satiated with carnage and plunder, the invaders at last retired, dragging large numbers, both of men and women, into slavery. For two months after Tumerlane's departure, Delhi remained without a government, and almost without inhabitants. At last Muhammad Taghlak regained a fragment of his former empire, but on his death, in 1412, his family became extinct. He was followed by the Sayad dynasty, which held Delhi with a few miles of territory until 1444, and then gave way to the house of Lodi. The monarchs of the Lodi family appear to have in a measure deserted Delhi, making Agra their capital. At last, in 1526, during the reign of Ibraham Lodi, Bibar, * sixth in descent from Tamerlane, marched into India at the head of a small body of veteran soldiers, and, having defeated and killed Ibrahim Lodi, at the great battle of Panipat, advanced upon Delhi, which opened her gates to her new ruler in May 1526.

Thus ended the period of Afghán rule in Delhi. From Bábar sprang the long line of Mughal Emperors, under whom Delhi reached the zenith of her glory. + Babar died in 1530, at Agra, which,

· His real name was Zahir-ul-din Muhammad ; Babar, the lion, was his Tartar zobriquet.

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Tamerlane and his descendent Babar with the dynasty that sprang from them are known as Mughals. There is little certainty as to the race to which they did actually belong. They were of Turki origin and certainly not Mughals. Indeed, Habar in his Memoirs never speaks of the Mughal nation but with contempt and aversion,

like his predecessors, the Lodis, he seems to have made his principal

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residence. In consequence probably of this desertion, the city of Firezabad seems never to have recovered after its overthrow by Tamerlane in 1398, and when Humávún, son of Bábar, determined to make Delhi his residence, he found it necessary to build or resione the fort of Purana Kila or Indrapat,* on the side of the arrient Indraprástha. Humáyún called his new fort Dín-panáh. That name, however, soon fell out of use, and the fort is ordinarily known as Purána Kila. In 1540 Humáyún was expelled by Sher Shah, and this monarch entirely rebuilt the city, enclosing and fortifying it with a new wall. Delhi Sher Shah, as the renovated town was called extended from where Humáyún's tomb now is, to the citadel of Firoz Tughlak already described as just outside the southern gate of the present city; and Humayun's fort of Din-panah, further strengthened, formed its citadel. The materials for this work were chiefly taken from Ala-ud-din's fort of Siri, and from other buildings of the ancient city. A gate of Delhi Sher Shah, called originally the Kábali Darwáza, but commonly known by the name of Lal Darwáza, or red gate, is now standing, a striking but isolated building, on the road side opposite the present jail. Another work of this time was Salimgarh, the fort already alluded to as situated at the north-east corner of the palace at the point where the East Indian Railway crosses the Jamna into the city. It was erected by Salim Shah, son of Sher Shah, in 1546.

In 1555 Humáyún regained the throne, but died within six months after his success. He was succeeded by his son, the illustrious Akbar, who ascended the throne early in 1556. During this reign and that of Jahángír, nothing of local interest is recorded: the Emperors principally resided at Agra or Lahore, while Delhi seems once more to have fallen into decay. But between the years 1638 and 1658; king Sháh Jahán once more rebuilt it almost in its present form, and his city, still known as Sháhjahánábád, is, with a few trifling exceptions, the city of modern days. It is to Sháh Jahán also that Delhi is indebted for the great mosque, called the Jáma Masjid, and for the restoration of the present Western Jamna Canal. Delhi, thus restored, was the capital of the renowned Aurangzeb (Alamgir I), the greatest of the Mughal kings, and during his reign, from 1658 to 1707, was uniformly prosperous.

From the death of Aurangzeb began the rapid decline of the Mughal Empire, and in the struggles of the ensuing century. Delhi suffered much and often. Bahádur Sháh, Jahándár Sháh and Farokhsher followed each other on the throne in quick succession. Farokhsher was succeeded 1719 by Muhammad Sháh, during whose reign Delhi saw under her walls for the first time the standards of the Mahratta destined afterwards to play such an important part in her history. Three years later, in 1729, the Persian Nádir Sháh

His mother however was a Mughal. The reason for this strange perversion of name, seems to be that the Indians call all Northern Musalmans, except the Afghans, Mughals. They now apply the term particularly to the Persians.

* General Cunningham believes that he built it entirely.

i The diedel or Palace, now known as the Fort, was begun in 1685; and the outer walls ten years inter.

cutered the city in triumph. On the record day after his entry a report was spread that Nadir Shah was dead, and the Indians, encour- Towns, Municipaaged by the ramour, fell upon the Persian centries, murdering many Hiles and Cantonof them. Nadie Shith, after vainly attempting to stay the tumuit, at last gave the order for a general managere. "The slaughter raged " from cantice till the day was far advanced, and was attended with all "the horror, that could be in pired by rapine, but and third of ven-"genure. The city was set on fire in reverd places, and was seen ine velved in one so he of destruction, blood and terror (** and though the massage was at last stayed it was only to be succeeded by systematic exterrion and plunder. Contributions were levied upon all, rich and poor alike, and exterted by every species of emelty. "Sleep and red is formal, the city. It was before a general massacre, but now the " number of individuals." For fifty-eight days Nudir Shah remained in Hellif, until catisfied that nothing more could be wring from the devailed city; and when at last he left, he carried with him a treasure in mancy amounting by the lowest computation, to eight or nine millions eterlings, be rider jewels of inerthinable value, and other properto to the amount of revend millions more, including the celebrated Peneoch Throne. The city by exhausted, deceated, mined; and not till long after. Nadir navgone did the court analog as it were, from a

It is as impossible within the limits of the present account, as it would be out of place, to attempt to trace the history of the collages of the Muchal Empire under the repeated blows dealt by Ahmed Shills During on the one hand and the Malmttas the other. Our concernations at is only with the capital; and it must ruffice to ray that before the final disruption of the empire in 1760, the unlanger city was first descetated by a civil war carried on for six months by daily combats in her streets; was twice eached by Ahmad Shiah Durani, when all the horners of Nadir Shiah's invasion were repeated; and lastly, what Per inn and Afghan had left, was reired by the rapacious Mahrattas. Alamgir II., the last real Emperor, was mindered in 1760, and then ensued a period of unexampled confusion. Ship Alam, an exile from his capital, assumed the empty name of king, but Delhi was a prey alternately to the Durani and the Mahmita. At last the latter gained the day, and restored. Shah Alam to his capital in 1771. The king made one feeble effort to thake off Mahratta rule, but was utterly defeated ut. Badarpur, ten miles to the south of Delhi. In 1788 the Palace was permanently occupied by a Mahratta garrison, and the king remained a cypher in the hand of Sindhia until the day (March 14th, 1803) when Lord Lake, having defeated the French General of the Mahrattas under the city walls, entered and took the puppet king under British protection,

Delhi was once more attacked by a Mahratta army under Hollan in 1804, after the disastrons retreat of Colonel Monson; but was gallantly defended by a small force under Colonel Ochterlony, the British Resident, who successfully held out against overwhelming numbers for eight days, mutil relieved by Lord Lake.

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The number of victims have been estimated as from 120,000 to 150,000.

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Holkar retreated, and from this date a new epoch in the history of Delhi began. The Palace remained under the immediate rule of lities and Canton the king, but the city, together with the Delhi territory, passed under British Administration, and enjoyed a long immunity from war and bloodshed. For fifty-three years nothing occurred to break the monotony of prosperity and peace. At length, however, the calm was rudely broken in upon by the stormy events of 1857.

The Mutiny.

For some months during the earlier portion of the year an uneasy presentiment is said to have prevailed among all classes of native society in Delhi, and a vague feeling of excitement in reference to some expected event, a feeling which was eagerly fomented by intrigues in the Palace, and was fed by false or exaggerated reports of the Persian war. At length the storm burst. On the evening of May 10th, occurred the Mutiny at Mirath, and on the morning of the 11th, the mutinous troopers had crossed the Jamna and stood clamouring for admittance below the Palace wall. The scene that followed has been too often described to need a minute relation here. Finding the Calcutta gate* which was nearest to the river crossing closed, the troopers doubled back towards the south, and found an entrance at the Rájghat gate in Dariá Ganj. Meanwhile, Captain Douglas, Commandant of the Palace Guards, Mr. Fraser, the Commissioner, and Mr. Hutchinson, Collector, had met at the Calcutta gate. On the approach of the mutineers from within, they escaped to the Lahore gate of the Palace and there were murdered. The Palace was occupied by crowds of troops and the whole city thrown into a ferment of confusion. At this time almost the whole civil and non-official residents of the station had their houses within the city wall, and fell an easy prey to the insurgents. The troopers from Mirath, joined by the roughs of the city, carried murder and rapine into every house. Soon too the infantry from Mirath began to arrive, and by 8 o'clock the mutineers were sole masters of every yard within the city walls, except the magazine and the main-guard just within the Kashmir gate.

Meanwhile the news reached the cantonment beyond the ridge that overlooks the city. The troops in the station were entirely native, three regiments of native infantry, the 38th, the 54th, and the 74th, and a battery of native artillery. The 54th were marched promptly down to the Kashmir gate and the main-guard, where a detatchment of the 38th was posted. These had already in their hearts cast in their lot with the mutineers, who were then appearing on the scene. Ordered to fire on the insurgents, they responded only by insulting sneers. Nor was the conduct of the 54th much better. Several European officers were cut down either by the insurgent troopers or by men of their own regiments, and when the artillery officers entered the gate a few minutes later, they found the traces of the conflict in the dead bodies of their comrades. insurgents, alarmed by the report of the approach of guns, had dispersed followed by the greater portion of the 54th. The guns were planted before the main-guard, and two companies of the 54th,

^{*} The old Calcutta gate no longer exists. It was destroyed in the construction of the Railway.

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which had accompanied them from cantonments, were posted as a They were now joined by the 74th, under Major Abbott, Towns, Municipaand the force, thus augmented, remained under arms all day at the lities and Cantonmain-guard, joined from time to time by the few fugitives who, almost by a miracle, escaped from the city.

The magazine stood half way between the palace and the mainguard. It was under the charge of Lieutenant Willoughby, with whom were associated Lieutenants Forest and Raynor and six European Conductors and Commissariat Sergeants. The native subordinates fled at the first sound of an attack upon the magazine, but the nine Europeans held out bravely for some time in the hope of succour, determined to defend to the last the enormous accumulation of the munitions of war collected in the magazine. About midday an explosion was heard at the main-guard, which shook the building to its foundation. It was the powder magazine fired by Willoughby and his companions when further defence was hopeless. Willoughby and Forest escaped to the Main-guard. Raynor and one of the Sergeants took a different direction and eventually reached Mirath. The remaining five of the nine perished in the explosion. All day long the sepoys in the cantonment, as well as at the main-guard, had been hovering on the brink of open mutiny, and were restrained only by the fear of the white regiments which were expected every moment to arrive from Mirath. But the day wore on, and no white regiments arrived, and at last the cloak was thrown off. The massacre at the Main-guard was begun by a murderous volley from the 38th, fired into the midst of the English officers and fugitives from the city, among whom were several ladies. A few escaped by an embrasure in the city wall, and clambering across the ditch, sought a refuge in the direction of the cantonments. Here, however, things were but little better. Before evening the sepoys had thrown of all semblance of allegiance. The ladies and children were for a time collected in the flagstaff tower on the summit of the ridge; but when the remaining guns were seized by mutinous sepoys, and it became impossible to hold together even those who were inclined to remain faithful, no resource remained but flight. A few officers, remaining to the last, resented the regimental colours. And then even these were forced to fly: and every vestige of British authority was stamped out of the cantonments, as in the morning it had been from the city. All through that night and the following days the fugitives toiled on. To some the villagers gave help; others they despoiled. Many perished miserably on the road, or, unable to proceed, fell a prey to muranding bands of robbers. The remainder, struggling painfully on, often assisted and sheltered by the people,

Meanwhile, in Delhi, some fifty Christians, European and Eurasian residents of Dariá Ganj, remained alive, thrust indiscriminately into a stifling chamber of the palace. For fifteen days they remained thus confined, and on the 16th were led forth to die. rope was thrown round the whole party so that none could escape, and thus, in a courtyard of the palace, they were foully massacred.

and especially by the Jats, at last found a refuge in Karnal and

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A sweeper who helped to dispose of the corpses, afterwards deposed that there were but five or six men among them; the rest were Towns, Municipathat there were but five or six men among them; the rest were lities and Canton women and children. The bodies were heaped upon a cart, borne to the banks of the Jamna, and thrown into the river.

A short month later, on June 8th, was fought the battle of Badli-ki-Sarai, and that same evening the avenging British force, sweeping the mutineers from their old cantonment and the Sabzi Mandi Bázár, encamped upon the ridge that overlooks the city. It would be foreign to the scope of the present account to trace the history of the ensuing siege, which has been already narrated by a hundred pens. For three long fiery months it dragged on, the 'Delhi Field Force' besieged upon the ridge rather than besieging, and the communication between the city and outside not being cut off except on the north. At length, the heavy guns arriving, it was determined to carry the city by assault. The first of the heavy batteries opened fire on September 8th, and on the morning of the 14th the British force, 7,000 men in all, advanced to storm the walls defended by 60,000 mutineers. The four points of attack were the Kashmír Bastion, the Water Bastion, the Kashmir Gate and the Lahore Gate.

The attacking force was divided into four columns with a reserve. The first two columns were to storm the breach in the Kashmír Bastion and the Water Bastion, the third to blow open the Kashmír Gate, and the fourth to clear the suburbs to the west of the city, and enter by the Lahore Gate. In advance of all were the 60th Rifles, concealed in the brushwood, stretching up to within musket shot of the walls, ready to keep down the fire of the rebels, and cover the advance of columns. On September 14th, at 3 A.M., the columns had fallen in at Ludlow Castle, but during the night, the breaches had been filled with sand-bags, and the columns were obliged to wait till the fire from the guns could once more clear the way. The troops lay down under shelter, and the advance of the rifles to the front with a cheer, was to be the signal for the cessation of the fire from the batteries, and the assault of the columns.

The following is Mr. Cooper's account of what ensued: "At the head of the third column stood the gallant exploding party consisting of Lieutenants Salkeld and Home of the Engineers, Sergeants Carmichael, Burgess and Smith of the Bengal Sappers, Bugler Hawthorne of the 52nd L. I. (who accompanied the party to sound the advance when the gate was blown in), and eight native Sappers, under Havildar Madhu, to carry the bags. At the edge of the cover, the powder-bags had been transferred to the European soldiers. Here stood this heroic little band, forming a forlorn hope, feeling themselves doomed to almost certain death, waiting in almost agonising suspense for the appointed signal. It came; the firing suddenly ceased, the cheer of the Rifles rang through the air, out moved Home with four soldiers, each carrying a bag of powder on his head; close behind him came Salkeld, portfire in hand, with four more soldiers similarly laden, while-a short distance behind the storming party, 150 strong, consisting of-

⁵⁰ H.M. 52nd L. I.,

⁵⁰ Kumaon Battalion,

⁵⁰ First Punjab Infantry under Captain Bailey,

followed up by the main hedy of the column in rear. The gateway. as in all native cities, was on the side of the bastion, and had an Towns, Municipaonter gateway in advance of the ditch. Home and his party were lities and Cantonat this outer gate, almost before their appearance was known. It was open, but the drawbridge so shuttered that it was very difficult to cross. However, they got over, reached the main gate, and laid their bags unharmed.

"So utterly paralyzed were the enemy by the audacity of the proceeding, that they only fired a few straggling shots, and made haste to close the wicket, with every appearance of alarm, so that Lieutenant Home, after laying his bags, jumped into the ditch unlimit. It was now Salkeld's turn. He also advanced with four other bags and a lighted portfire, but the enemy had now recovered from their consternation, and had seen the smallness of the party, and the object of their approach. A deadly fire was poured on the little band, from the open wicket, not ten feet distant. Salkeld laid his bags, but was shot through the leg and arm, and fell back on the bridge, handing the portfire to Sergeant. Burgess, bidding him light the fusee. Burgess was instantly shot dead in the attempt; Sergeant Carmichael then advanced, took up the portfire, and succeeded in the attempt, but immediately fell mortally wounded. Sergeant Smith, seeing him fall, advanced at a run, but finding the fusee was already burning, threw himself down into the ditch, where the bugler had already conveyed Salkeld. In another moment, a terrific explosion shattered the massive gateway, the bugle sounded the advance, and then with a loud cheer, the storming party was in the gateway, and, in a few minutes more, the column; and the Kashmir Gate and Main Guard were once more in the hands of British troops." The first column, under General Nicholson and the second under Colonel Jones were equally successful in carrying the breaches at the Kashmir and Water Bastions, and both columns uniting the other side, marched along the narrow lane encircling the city inside the walls, and cleared the walls as far as the Kabul Gate. The third column, after blowing up the Kashmir Gate, pushed on to the Chandni Chank, but were eventually forced to retire on the Church. The fourth column was the least fortunate, and was forced to retreat. The retreat, however, in spite of considerable loss, was made in good

But now the main difficulty had been overcome. The attacking force had now entered the city, and day by day it was gradually cleared of the rebels. On the 16th September the magazine (now the Post Office) was stormed by Her Majesty's 61st Regiment with some Panjabis and Biloches under Colonel Deacon. On the 17th the Delhi Bank House was carried, and on 19th the line of communication between the magazine and the Kábul Gate was - completed, and in a few days more the whole city was cleared of the rebels, and the capital of the Mughals was in our hands, never again to be given up to the pageant sovereign, who had exercised his dominion therein for so long.

The loss, however, was very heavy. On that famous 14th of September, 66 officers and 1,104 men were counted among the killed and wounded. Foremost on the fatal list stands the famous name of

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ments.

The Mutiny.

Towns, Municipalities and Canton-

General John Nicholson. He, the life and soul of the assault, had head ed the first column of attack which stormed the Kashmir Bastion

Reforming his men, he entered the narrow lane behind the walls and swept along inside, past the Mori and Kabul Gates: clearing the rebel forces from the walls. He was approaching the Lahore Gate

when fire was opened upon his column from the Burn Bastion, and from a breastwork planted across the lane. Leading on this men to attack the breastwork, he fell mortally wounded by a musket ball. He was carried to the rear, his column falling back to the Kabul Gate, but he lived to hear of the complete success of the whole attack. After lingering on for a few days he breathed his

last. The King and several members of the Royal Family, on the flight of the mutineers, took refuge at Húmáyún's tomb. Here, on September 21st, they surrendered to Major Hodson, who with his own hand, in order to avoid a rescue, shot the young princes down. The King, Bahadur Shah, was brought into Delhi and tried before a Military Commission. He was found guilty of encouraging and

abetting acts of rebellion and murder, and being saved from a severer penalty by a guarantee of his life which he had received from Major Hodson at the time of his surrender, he was sentenced to perpetual banishment. He was removed to Rangoon, where he died, a pensioner of the British Government, on October 7th, 1862 Delhi, thus reconquered, remained for some time under military authority, and owing to the murders of several European sol-

diers who straggled from the lines, the whole population was shortly afterwards expelled. The order of expulsion was afterwards modified; Hindus being generally admitted, but Muhammadans still rigorously excluded. This was the state of affairs when, on January 11th, 1858, the city-was made over to the Civil authorities. In July 1858, Civil Courts were re-opened and the city gradually resumed its wonted appearance. But even to the present day, the shattered walls of the Kashmir Gate and the bastions of the northern face of the city bear visible testimony to the severity of the cannonade of September 1857. The cantonments were constituted in 1859. Since then, the only events of importance that have occurred at Delhi have been the visit of the Prince of Wales in 1876, and the Imperial proclamation in 1877, when all the feudatories of the Indian Empire were assem-

bled at the Mughal capital of India.

Any description of Delhi would be incomplete without a passing notice of some of the very interesting objects in the vicinity of the town.*

Of these the foremost is the Kuth Minar, which has been already described a few pages back. Within a few yards of the Kutb is the celebrated iron pillar already described. On the other side of the Kutb is the Alai Darwaza, or gate of Ala-ud-din. Khilji. It was built about 1310 A.D. The building is a square of 341 feet inside, and 561 feet outside; the walls being 11 feet thick; from the inner floor to the domed ceiling it is about 47 feet high. The corners are ornamented with a series of arched

Objects of interest in the neighbour-

hood.

niches, which cut off the angles of the square, and so turned the sup- Chapter VI: port of the dome into an octagon. On each side of the gateway is Towns, Municipa-a lofty door, those on the northern and southern sides being the lities and Cantonloftiest. The doorways are most elaborately ornamented; each door is formed by a pointed horse-shoe arch, of which the outer edge is Objects of interest panelled. The whole face of the building is ornamented with ela- in the neighbourborate chiselling, the most attractive features being the bands of inscription. A short distance away from the Kutb is the basement of another similar building, with the base considerably broader than the original. It was also designed by Ala-ud-dín Khilji, but unfinished at his death. Intermingled with the Muhammadan ruins round the Kutb are ruins of an ancient Buddhist temple, of no great value as works of art, but interesting as showing the existence of that religion at an early age in Hindústan. Adjoining the Kuth is the Kila Rai Pittora, the remains of an old Hindu fort, with the walls clearly discernible. The principal buildings connected with the Kutb have now been enumerated; but besides these there are numerous tombs and temples round the relics of emperors, saints, and statesmen. The most prominent, perhaps, is the tomb of Adam Khán, an octangular building with a dome, now used as a rest-house for the officers of the Delhi district.

Between the Kuth and Delhi is the tomb of Safdar Jang, the Wazir of the Emperor Ahmad Shah. It is about five miles from modern Delhi, and stands in the centre of an extensive garden on a lofty terrace containing arched cells. The roof of the tomb is surmounted by a marble dome, and is supported by open marble pavilions on the four corners. The garden is about 300 yards square, and at each of the four corners is an octagonal tower, the sides of which. with the exception of the entrance, are covered with perforated red stone screens. Behind the gateway, and a little to the north of it, there is a masjid with three domes and three arched entrances built throughout of red sandstone. The terrace over which the tomb stands is 10 feet above the level of the garden and 110 feet square. In the centre of the terrace is a vault under which is the grave of Safdar Jang. The building over the grave is about 60 feet square, and 90 feet high. In its centre there is a room 20 feet square, containing a beautiful marble monument highly polished and massively carved. Round the centre room there are eight apartments, four square and four octagonal. The pavement and the walls of the room up to the waist are marble. roof of the centre room is about 40 feet high, and the ceiling is formed by a flattish dome. In the centre of the roof stands a bulbous marble dome with marble minarets at each angle. The four faces of the tomb are alike both in construction and ornamentation; the latter consists of inlaid bands of marble. A stone aqueduct deprived both of its fountains and water may yet be seen in front of the tomb.

Continuing along the road from the Kuth to Delhi on the right hand side about two miles from Delhi the Jantar Mantar is reached. This was erected in the third year of Muhammad Shah A.D. 1724 by the astronomer Jey Singh, founder of the principality of Jaipur. The work was begun, but never completed, owing to the death of

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Objects of interest in the neighbourhood. the projector and the disturbed state of the Empire. What was finished has been seriously injured by the Jats and others, but even now proves considerable astronomical skill on the part of the projector. The great equatorial dial is still nearly perfect, but the gnomon and the periphery of the circle on which the degrees are marked have been injured in several places. The length of the gnomon is 118 feet, base 104, and perpendicular 56. Besides this gnomon there are two others on a smaller scale, all three being connected by a wall on which is described a graduated semicircle for measuring the altitude of objects lying due east or west from hence. In a southerly direction from the great equatorial dial are two buildings exactly alike, both for observing the altitude and azimuth of the stars, each apparently intended to correct the other. The whole collection of instruments shows astronomical knowledge of a very high order.

The road to Delhi enters the town sideways at the Lahore gate. Outside the Delhi gate of the city near the Mathrah road is a tall column known as Fíroz Sháh's Lát. It was formerly surrounded by the city of Fírozábád, but that city is merely a ruin without inhabitants. The pillar is a sandstone monolith placed on a pyramidal building of rubble stone. It is 42 feet high, of which 35 feet towards the summit are polished, and the rest is rough. The upper diameter is 25 inches, and lower 38 inches. The colour of the stone is pale pink, and it resem-The chief point of interest about this monolith is bles dark quartz. that the inscription on it forms part of the ediets of Asoka, king of Magadha, by which he proclaimed his talents to the world. pillar forms one of a series erected by him from Kabul to Orissa. There is also another pillar on the ridge inscribed with one of the ediets of king Asoka. He lived about 250 B.C. Further along the Mathrah road is Purána Kila or Indrapat, supposed to be the site of the most ancient site of Delhi.

Still further along the same road is the tomb of Humáyún which was finished in 1865 at a cost of 15 lakhs of rupees. Besides the tomb of Humáyún himself, this mausoleum contains the graves of many others of the house of Timour. This tomb of the first hereditary monarch of the Mughal race may be remembered as being the spot where Bahádur Sháh, the last Mughal Emperor of Delhi, surrendered himself to the British Government after the capture of Delhi during the Mutiny, and in sight of which his sons and nephew were summarily executed for murder and treason by Hodson.

The tomb of Humáyún stands near the old bed of the Jamna in the centre of a high-walled enclosure. On the west and south are two lofty tower-like gateways, which add much to the grandeur of the building. The gateways are built of grey stone ornamented with bands of red stone and marble. In the centre of the garden is a platform 5 feet high and 100 yards square, surmounted by a second platform 20 feet high and 85 yards square. In the centre of the floor of the upper platform are the graves of Húmáyún, and of the other Mughal princes just described. Above these graves is erceted the mausoleum, the centre room of which is a square of 45 yards. It is built of red sandstone and is ornamented with marble bands. The form of the main body of the tomb is that of a square with the

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Objects of interest in the neighbourhood.

Further along, the Mathrah road, and somewhat to the right of it going from Delhi, is the fort and city of Tughlakábád. It was finished in 1323. It is in the shape of a half hexagon, the three sides being about 2 mile each in length and the base 11 miles. The circuit of the city is about 4 miles. The fort stands on a rocky height surrounded by ravines. The walls of the fort are built of massive blocks of stone of great thickness. The rock on the southern face is scarped, and the walls above rise to a mean height of 40 In the south-west angle is the citadel, occupying about i of the area of the fort. It contains the ruins of a large palace. The citadel is strongly defended by ranges of towers and bastions, within which were the private apartments of the Emperor. The fort of Tughlakábád has 13 gates, and the citadel 3 inner gates. It contains seven tanks for water, and three báolis still in good order. There are apartments underground at a depth of from 30 to 80 feet, probably for use in the hot weather. The upper part of the Fort is full of ruined houses, while the lower part seems never to have been fully inhabited. Tughlakábád formerly belonged to the Rájá of Ballabgarh, but was annexed owing to the Rájá's participation in the Mutiny. It is now an insignificant Gujar village, owing all. its importance to the grandeur of its ruins. There is a metalled road from here to the Kutab.

Such is a short sketch of some of the principal monuments To describe all at length would require a separate around Delhi. volume, but the most important have been touched upon. For this purpose great assistance has been received from Carr Stephen's book, Archæology of Delhi, in which a full account will be found of every

monument of interest around Delhi.

The Municipality of Delhi was first constituted in 1863. It Taxation, trade. &c. is now a Municipality of the first class. The Committee consists of the Deputy Commissioner as president, with five other official members, including the Vice-President, and 15 non-official members. The non-official members are appointed by Government on the

nomination of the Deputy Commissioner, subject to the approval of the Commissioner of the division. Table No. XLV shows the income of the Municipality for the last few years, while Table XLVA gives details of manufactures. The income is chiefly derived from octroi, levied at various rates on the value of almost all goods brought within municipal limits, grain and piece-goods being excepted. Certain nazúl property, in the hands of the Municipality, also yield a considerable income.

Delhi is the great commercial centre for the eastern part of the Panjáb, Rájpútána and the neighbouring districts of the North-Western Provinces. An important item of the export trade is leather and hides, and also ghi. Raw cotton is largely collected here, and forwarded to Bombay and Calcutta for exportation to England. Cotton thread is re-imported from Europe and worked up into pagris and dopattas. In the case of European piece-goodsanother very important article of traffic-and European glass and China ware, the process is reversed, Delhi being the most important market for distribution in the north-western parts of India. Beyond the limits of the province, the export dealings of Delhi are

principally with Sind, Kábul, Alwar, Bikaner, Jaipur, and the Chapter VI.

North-Western Provinces. Of Panjáb towns, Rewári, Hissár, Towns, Municipala Tolondhar Forezonur, Towns, Municipala Tolondhar Tolon Amritsar, Ambála, Jalandhar, Ferozepur, lities and Canton-Ludhiánáh, Lahore, Multán, and Posháwar, all have extensive dealings with the great Delhi houses. European enterprise is represented by the Delhi, and Taxation, trade, &c. a branch of the Bengal Bank, and by the agents of two or three firms of eotton merehants. There is a considerable through traffic in charas eoming from Dera Gházi Khán, and passing through to Calcutta without breaking bulk. Most of the charas for consumption in the city is brought from Amritsar. There is a considerable importation of gold and silver in bars, which is used in the eity in the manufacture of gold and silver fancy-work and ornaments. In food grains the export is principally in a southern direction; little going north. With regard to metal, copper and

brass in sheets, and iron wrought and unwrought are imported from Europe; but most of that imported is disposed of in the city for local. requirements. Gold also is imported. There are some manufactories in the city, but they do little more than supply the wants of the distriet. Ghi is largely imported principally for the requirements of the eity.

The principal manufactures of the city are native shoes, for

Year.		Imports	Exports.		
1876-77	***	79.61.498	95,52,408		
1877-78		2.95,39,266	1,25,76,306		
1878-79		2.82,07.193	1,16,51,761		
1879-80		2.22 72,903	98,74,125		
1880-81		3,94.74,640	3,44,18,500		

which the demand is very large; and faney silver work. In the latter trade, several very wealthy firms are engaged. A more detailed notice of some of the industries of the town will be found in Mr. Kipling's note given at pages 124 to 138. Table No. XLVA

gives details of the manufactures of the town, as they stood in 1881-82. and the figures in the margin show total imports and exports for the last few years; but the figures are of very doubtful accuracy. Further information will be found in the trade reports.

Of its special industries, perhaps the most famous is the production of jewellery, gold and silver lace, real and imitation, and tinsel work in all its branches; but there is probably no trade known in India that has not its representatives in the city. The Delhi jewellery is especially famous, but is losing much of its interest by reason of excessive imitation of European models. The characteristic articles of the Delhi jewellery are turquoise brooches, bracelets, and filagree work in gold and silver. This branch of industry received a great blow in 1857 by the removal of the Royal family and its retainers from the city, Large sums of money, which had formerly been spent annually upon decorations, personal and otherwise, now ceased to find their way into the bázár, the result being to paralyze the energies, and eventually diminish the numbers of artificers.

The most important public buildings have been described above. Near the Jama Masjid is the civil hospital with accommodation for a large number of patients. The Delhi College is a white building with a lofty colonnade. The Institute, described above, is a fine building containing the Darbar Hall with a public library and reading rooms. In front of this building, in the centre of the Chándni Chauk, is a lofty clock-tower with four faces. The remaining public -

ments.

Institutions and public buildings. 206- CHAP. VI.—TOWNS, MUNICIPALITIES AND CANTONMENTS.

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Institutions and

public buildings.

buildings are the kotwali, the Commissioner's Office (adjoining his private residence), the district offices, the railway station, telegraph office and post office. The latter occupies a building known as the magazine. There are several excellent shops, the Banks of Bengal and Delhi, and the Northbrook, Great Eastern, and United Service Hotels. There is a local paper published in English entitled the Punjab Herald. Near the East Indian Railway Station is a building known as the Mor Serai, used partly as a bonded warehouse, and partly as a habitation for poor Europeans. Within the city there are other serais, tahsil offices, a dispensary with several branches, a central police thána with several other thánas, several branch post offices, and a high school. Outside the Ajmir Gate are the police There are a number of schools of various kinds in the city described under the head of education. The public gardens, known as the Kudsia Bágh, are situated just outside the Kashmír Gate, and inside are the Queen's Gardens occupying a considerable space, and giving an appearance of freshness and verdure to Delhi not often met with in a native town. There is nothing especial to remark about the cantonments. In the fort are several handsome buildings, but they are of a period prior to the cantonments, and have been described above.

Population and vital statistics.

The population, as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1875, and 1881 is shown below:—

Limits of Enumeration,	Year of Census.	Persons	Males.	Females.
Whole town {	1868 1881 1868	1.54,417 1,73,393 1.64,417		17.071 80,228
Municipal limits {	1875 1881	1,60,553 1,73,393	•••	

It is difficult to ascertain the precise limits within which the

Town or Suburb.	Population.			
	1868.	1881.		
Delhi City excluding Cantonments Cantonments Pahāri Dhirāj Teliwāra Teliwāra Mughalpurā Sabzi Mandi Pul Mithāi Nabhi Karim Jaisinghpurā Shidipur Khandrāt kalān Madhoganj Minor Suburbs Civil Lines	1,13,053 {	1,17.863 3,148 78,144 10,290 5,488 5,393 2,195 2,015 1,249 821 674 2,181 628		

1875 were taken; but the details in the margin, which give the population of suburbs, throw some light on the matter. The figures for the population within municipal limits according to the Census of 1868 are taken from the published tables of the Census of 1875; but it was noted at the time that their accuracy was in many cases doubtful. The Deputy

in the district report on the Census of 1881 regarding the increase of polulation:—

"The increase in the city and suburbs of Delhi is partly owing to improvement in trade, and partly to the opening of two new lines of Railway, viz., the Sind, Panjab and Delhi Railway, and the Rajputana State

Railway, each having its terminus at Delhi. The better attention paid of late years to conservancy and sanitation must also have tended indirectly to increase the population by causing a reduction in the rate of mortality. As might have been expected, the increase was proportionately larger in the suburbs where there is more room, for expansion than in the city. population of the former increased by nearly 20 per cent., while that of the Population and vital city has increased by 9.4 per cent. only. The following table which distinguishes religions, is interesting especially as showing the effect of the Mutiny upon the Muhammadan population. At the time of the Census of 1853, although the population of the Palace (estimated in 1844 to be about 14,000 souls), appears not to have been included in the returns, yet there must have been a large number of hangers-on of the Royal Family, residing outside the Palace. These would necessarily have disappeared before 1868. Again, to say nothing of the number of Muhammadans actually killed in 1857, it must be remembered that every Muhammadan was expelled for a time from the city after its capture, and it was only by degrees that the city became completely re-populated. So, too, large numbers of trades-people who had driven a thriving trade in supplying the wants of the Palace and its retainers, quitted the city after the expulsion of the Royal Family."

Year.	Place.		Christians, &c.	Mindus.	Muham. madans.	Total.
1847	City Suburbs	•••	327	71,630 15,615	66.120 6,687	1,37,977 22.302
			327	87,145	72,807	1,60,279
. 1853	*****		*** ***	*****		1,52,426
1864	City Suburbs	•••	1,647	61,324 22.022	39,434 17,374	1,02,332 39,376
•			1,647	83,346	56,808	1,41,708
1868	City Suburbs		*****	*****	*****	1,11,015 43,402
			•			1,54,417
1875	City Suburbs	,,,		*****	*****	1,15 992 44.561
			*****		*****	1,60,553
1881	City Suburbs	***	1,521 307	68,172 30,874	51.782 20,737	1.21,475 51,918
	{		1,828	99,046	72,519	1,73,393

The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table XX of the Census Report of 1881. annual birth and death rates per mille of population since 1868 are given on the next page, the basis of calculation being in every case the figures of the most recent Census.

The actual number of births and deaths registered during the last five years is shown in Table No. XLIV.

Najafgarh is a small place of about 4,000 inhabitants in the Dehli talisil, about 17 miles from Dehli by direct road, and 18 via

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Najafgarh town.

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Population and vital statistics.

Year.		BIRTH RATES.				DEATH RATES.			
		Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females		
1868					40		 		
1869			•••	}	42	37	47		
1870.	- 1	40	39	,	67	63	72		
1871	••• {	86		41	75	74	73		
1872	•••]		- 87	. 85	85	83	86		
873	•••	. 80	42 -	36	94	· 91	97		
874		74	39	35	94	88	. 100		
875	••• }	83	43	40	77	72	. 83		
	•••]	100	53	. 47	. '94	89 .	, 99		
1876	•••	101	52	49	75	71	80		
877		108	54	51	91	85	98		
1878	•••)	83	47	45 .	163	153	173		
879	••• }	60	33	29	131	124	140		
.880]	76 -	39	36	67.	65	69		
881	}	114	59 Í	54	85	83	88		
Average]	. 88	48	43	92	88	98		

Najafgarh town.

Nangloi which is the best road. In the latter case there is a metalled road as far as Nangloi, about 10 miles, and the rest is unmetalled. It is accessible with difficulty in the rains, as portions of the road are flooded. The town itself is well wooded, and consists of a collection of native houses with three metalled bázárs, many of the houses in which are built of brick. Two of these bázárs are parallel and the third connecting them forms rather a square than a street.

There is a thána, school-house, and dispensary in the town The thána is an old building, and worth a passing notice. There is an old gateway on the Delhi direct road, which is also a fine building. The Municipal Committee consists of seven members nominated by the Deputy Commissioner with the Commissioner's approval. Its income for the last few years is shown in Table No. XLV, and is principally derived from an octroi tax. The place is really of no importance, and merely happens to be the largest village in the neighbourhood. A metalled road is being made direct between Delhi and Najafgarh, which when finished will no doubt increase its importance. There is a police rest-house at some little distance from the town in the centre of what was formerly a garden. It is used by the district officers. There are very fine ber trees in Najafgarh; their fruit is said to weigh five tolas to a single ber; there is a special family here of Muhammadans, called Mirdhas, who are traditionally measurers of land and crops. They do not get much of this work now, but they claim to have done it in the time of the Muhammadan kings. The population, as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1875, and 1881, is shown below:—

Limits of Enumeration.	Year of Census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Whole town {	1869 1881	3,768 3,999	1,774 2,049	1,994 1,950
Municipal limits {	1869 1875 1881	3,592 4,309 3,999	040 040	••• •••

It is difficult to ascertain the precise limits within which the cuumerations of 1868 and 1875 were taken. The figures for the population within municipal limits according to the Census of 1868 lities and Cantonare taken from the published tables of the Census of 1875; but it was noted at the time that their accuracy was in many cases doubtful. It would appear from information supplied by the Deputy Commissioner that, since 1868, the suburb of Dijáwan Khurd has been brought within Municipal limits. Its population, however, is only 176. The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table XX of the Census Report of 1881.

Sunipat is a town of 13,000 inhabitants situated 28 miles north of Delhi. It is approached from the Grand Trunk Road by two metalled roads from the north-west and south-west, each about five miles long. There is a direct road from Delhi, the old Imperial road, but now not much used. The town is surrounded by trees, and in the centre is an eminence on which is situated the tahsil and thána, the former flanked by four small towers. On this eminence is also situated the dispensary, shortly to become the Munsiff's Court, a new dispensary having been built just outside the town. Near to the taksil is the school house. Other prominent objects in the town are the spires of the two Saráogi temples. The Municipal Committee, ten in number, have also a house where they hold their meetings. This house is also used as the Honorary Magistrate's katcheri; but when the new dispensary is opened, it is expected that a room in the former dispensary will be allotted to them. Its income for the last few years is shown in Table No. XLV, and is mainly derived from an octroi tax. The town is very. distinctly divided according to the tribes inhabiting it. The most prosperous portion is that occupied by the banias, who possess several handsome houses in their quarters and a bázár which appears to thrive. There are no manufactures, but there is a considerable traffic in cloths and metalware brought here from Delhi for distribution. It forms a market for a circuit of seven or eight miles. The population is fairly equally divided between Hindus and Muhammadans, mainly Saiyads. A new canal is about to be opened about three miles off, which it is hoped will increase the prosperity of the agriculturists about Sunipat. In the neighbourhood arc some ancient Pathán tombs, one of which has been converted into a rest-house.

In former years the Jamna appears to have flowed under the walls of Sunipat. It is a town of great antiquity, and was founded apparently by the early Aryan settlers. Popular tradition, accepted as true by General Cunningham, identifies it as one of the five pats mentioned in the Mahabharat, as demanded by Yudisthira from Daryodhana as the price of peace. Its foundation would thus be placed before the war of the Mahabharata. The point is, however, doubtful, and Syad Ahmad believes that it was founded by Rája Soni, 13th in descent from Arjuna, brother of Yudisthira. The town is picturesquely situated on the side of a small hill, which, standing out as it does in a level plain, is evidently formed.

Chapter VI.

Towns, Municipaments.

Najafgarh town.

Sunipat town.

Chapter VI.

Towns, Municipaments.

Sunipat town.

from debris of buildings that have crumbled to decay on this one. site during the town's long life of 3,000 years. In 1866 the villalities and Canton gers, while digging a well from the top of the hill, excavated from a depth of some 70 or 80 feet below the surface a terra-cotta figure of the sun in perfect preservation. General Cunningham. pronounced this image to be at least 1,200 years old. In 1871 a hoard of some 1,200 Greco-Bactrian hemi-drachms were also unearthed at Sunipat. The present town is about one square mile in extent. One part is called the Kot, on top of which stand the thana and tahsil; while the other part is known as the Mashhad, or place of martyrdom, where it is said that Nasir-ud-din met his death at the hands of a Hindu Rája. The population, as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1875, and 1881 is shown below:

Limits of Enumeration		Year of Census.	Persons.	Males.	Females,
Whole town	}	1468 1991	12,176	6,119	6,529 6,629
Municipal limits	{	1864 1876 1691	12,176 13,637 13,077		***

It is difficult to ascertain the precise limits within which the enumerations of 1868 and 1875 were taken. The figures for the population within municipal limits according to the Census of 1868 are taken from the published tables of the Census of 1875; but it was noted at the time that their accuracy was in many cases doubt-The Deputy Commissioner in the District Report on the Census of 1881 accounts for the decrease of population by the absence of several large wedding-parties on the night of the last Census. The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table XX of the Census Report of 1881. The annual birth and death rates per mille of population since 1868 are given below, the basis of calculation being in every case the figures of the most recent Census:--

Year.	1	BIRTH RATE	5.	DEATH RATES.		
a car.	Persons.	Mules.	Females.	Persons,	Males	Famales
1868				8	9	8
1000	***	•••		14	16	12 33 28 26 35 25 29 21 21
	äi	31	:8	40	42	38
	33	37	28	32	35	28
1871	23	18	14	30	35 35	26
1872		16	16	36	36	35
1873	26	20	15	40	45	35
1874	34	20	15	30	32	28
1875	35	15	11	27	26	29
1876	26		35	23	26 25	21
1877	31	18		25	26	51
1878	31	18	13	43	45	. 40
1879	. 23	12	10	25	24	20
1880	27	13	14	26	26	20 25
1881	38	. 21	17		33	28
Average	30	17	15	30	0.0	1

CHAP. VI.—TOWNS, MUNICIPALITIES AND CANTONMENTS.

The actual number of births and deaths regstered during the last five years is shown in Table No. XLIV.

five years is shown in Table 100. ALLY.

Faridabad is a small town of 7,500 inhabitants, about 16 lities and Cantonmiles south-west of Delhi. It is approached from the Delhi-Mathrah road by two short branches south-cast and north-east, Town of Faridabad. cach about a mile in length. The two are continuous, and form a loop going through the main bazaar of the town. main bazar is a fairly broad street with houses built of brick on each side. About half way along this bazaar another bazaar branches out on one side leading past the post office, school, rest-house and dispensary to a large house belonging to the zaildár. It is a handsome collection of buildings with a mosque attached, partly in the European style. Opposite where this bazar branches off is a large mosque with a tank in front of it, built by one Shaikh Farid from whom the town derives its name. There is a thána and the remains of an old serai.. The Municipal Committee consists of eight members, appointed by the local Government on the joint recommendation of the Commissioner and Deputy Commissioner. Its income for the last few years is shown in Table No. XLV, and is derived from an octroi tax. Just outside the town is a large tank, partly packka, but somewhat choked up with mud. In this town the Hindus slightly preponderate. With the exception of the main bazaar, the houses are mostly of mud and mean in appearance. There is no trade in the town, nor is there likely to be, as it is off the main road. Faridabad is said to have been founded in 1607 A.D., by Shekh Farid, treasurer of Jehángir, for the purpose of protecting the high road, which passes through the town, from robbers. He built a fort, tank,

shown bel	o₩:				
	Limits of Enumeration.	Year of census.	Persons,	Moles.	Females.
	Whole town {	1881 1881	7,990 7,427	4,092 3,804	3,898 3,623
	Municipal limits {	1868 1876 1881	7,990 7,583 7,427	***	••• ••• <i>*</i>

and masjid. In later times it was the head-quarters of a parganal, which was held in jágír by the Rája of Ballabgarh, till it was resumed on the confiscation of his states after the Mutiny. The population, as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1875 and 1881 is

It is difficult to ascertain the precise limits within which the enumerations of 1868 and 1875 were taken. The figures for the population within municipal limits according to the Census of 1868 are taken from the published tables of the Census of 1875; but it was noted at the time that their accuracy was in many cases doubtful. The Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows in the District Report on the Census of 1881 regarding the decrease of population: "The "decrease in Faridabad is easy of explanation. In the years 1871, "1872 and 1873, the death-rate was very high; in the last year it "rose to 98 per mille, owing to an outbreak of fever. The town is not "prospering. Since the diversion of the Delhi and Mathrah road, Chapter VI.

Chapter VI.

"which formerly passed through it, its trade has suffered, and the "place is less frequented than formerly." The constitution of the Towns, Municipa-population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown lities and Canton-in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table XX of ments. the Census Report of 1881: Town of Ballabgarh.

Ballabgarh is a town of 5,800 inhabitants, 22 miles from Delhi along the Delhi-Mathrah road, on the east side of the road. It is the head-quarters of a tahsil, and possesses a thána, school, distillery and dispensary. For the purpose of describing the town, it may be divided into two parts, the town proper and the fort outside the town and between it and the main road. The town itself is a collection of mean houses, but has two broad bazaars crossing one another at right angles, and forming a small square in the centre. From these bazaars issue smaller streets, but all at right angles to the main bazaars with a wall at the end of each. The town is said to have derived its regular shape from having been built on the model of Jaipur. There is an encamping ground on the main road. The Municipal Committee consists of eight members appointed by the local Government on the joint recommendation of the Commissioner and Deputy Commis-Its income for the last few years is shown in Table No. XLV, and is derived from an octroi tax. The fort, which is outside the town, contains the palace of the former Rájá. He was hung for lukewarm conduct in the Mutiny, and his estate confiscated. His wife now lives in the town on a pension of Rs. 500 a month. The palacc consisted of several houses, of which all except one have fallen to This is a square, two-storeyed building built of white sandstone, with carved doors and a courtyard in the centre. On one side is the talsil with the treasury, and on the other the Munsiff's Court, and above this the police post house. Outside this is a building now used as a thána. The fort is surrounded by a stone wall

Ballabgarh* is not an ancient town at all. The earliest account of its becoming important shows that in 1705 Gopal Singh, a Tawatia Ját zamíndár of the village Aláwalpur, came over and settled in Síhi near Ballabgarh, having turned out the Tagah cultivators of that place. As he waxed strong by plundering travellers on the Mathrah road, which passes by Sihi, he was able to attack Amjad, the Rajput Chaudhrí, and with the aid of the Gújars of Tigáon to kill him. Murtaza Khán, the local Government officer of Farídábád, tried to make matters quiet by appointing Gopál Singh Chaudhri of the Faridábád parganah, with a cess of one anna in the rupee on the revenue. This was in 1710. In 1711 Gopál Singh died, and was succeeded by his Charandas, seeing how weak the imperial grasp son Charandás. was growing even in the nearer districts, appropriated the revenue. and openly refused to make it over to Murtaza Khán. He was, however, seized, and in 1714 imprisoned by the latter in Faridabad fort, and he remained there some little time till his son Balram, duping

about 30 feet high. The town is inhabited mostly by agriculturists, and is said to have fallen off much in importance since the

absorption into British territory.

^{*} The name is probably a corruption from Balramgarh, the fort of Balram, its founder.

the Muhammadan officer, under pretence of paying a ransom, set Chapter VI. him at liberty.* Father and son then obtained the aid of the Bhart-Towns, Municipapur Raja Surajmal and killed Murtaza Khan. The ascendancy of lities and Cantonthe Bhartpur chief continued down to 1738; in the next year the Delhi king gave the titles of Naib Bakhshi, and Rao to Balram, and Town of Ballabgarh, it was to celebrate the acquisition of these honours that Balrám built the stone fort-palace of Ballabgarh. But he was not allowed long to enjoy his rank, for he was killed in return for his murder of Murtaza Khán by the son of his victim Akibat Mahmúd. His sons Kishan Singh and Bishan Singh remained in possession of the Ballabgarh fort, and they were in 1762 nominated killádár aur názim of this parganah by the Maharaja of Bhartpur. In 1774, however, he dismissed them from his service, and they died just at the same time. Next year Ajit Singh, son of Kishan Singh, and Hira Singh, son of Ruo Kishandas, presented themselves before the Emperor at Delhi, and agreed to deliver possession of the Ballabgarh parganah to the royal authority. Accordingly Najaf Khán of the imperial establishment was deputed to take it. Ajít Singh was appointed killúdár and názim of Ballabgarh, while Híra Singh was taken away by the Nawáb Najaf Khan to Agra. The next year he came back, and Ajit Singh was formally entitled Rája, and Hirá Singh was called Rája and also 'Sálár Jang.' The revenue of Ballabgarh was estimated at Rs. 1,20,000, and it was made an istimuur tenure of 60,000 rupees. Meanwhile the administration of the country had come into the hands of Madhoji Scindia, and he remitted the amount taken as istimrárí. In 1793 Ajít Singh was murdered by his brother Zalim, but was succeeded by his son Bahádar Singh. In 1803 on the approach of General Lake, Bahádar Singh sent his son Pirthi Singh, and Hírá Singh sent his son Gangá Parshad to the English army. Pirthi Singh was killed at the fight at Dara Mukandra, and Ganga Parshad ran away. It appeared that Hira Singh was in collusion with the Mahrattas, and he was therefore turned out of office, Bahádar Singh being confirmed in it, 12th December 1804, and received next year the grant of parganahs Pali and Pakal in return for undertaking the police arrangements of the road. This Rájá built the town of Ballabgarh, which is also called Rámgani.

Bahádar Singh died in 1806. Naráyan Singh, his son, succeeded, but died also in the same year. Anrud Singh took the Raj, and ruled till 1818. His minor son Sáhib Singh came next, and the widow of Anrúd Singh built a chhatri in memory of her deceased . husband, with a pakka tank. Sáhib Singh died childless in 1825, and was succeeded by his uncle Rám Singh. In the time of this prince the parganah of Pali Pakal was resumed by the Government, the

^{*} The story goes that he promised to pay a large amount in cash directly his father was freed. To carry out the agreement it was stipulated that the captive should be set at liberty directly the, silver came into the hands of his captors. He was brought guarded to the side of the Tank near Ballabgarh, and when the cart bringing the treasure had some up and one or two box of ranges had here examine. bringing the treasure had come up, and one or two bags of rupees had been examined, Charandás was let go. He immediately made off on a fleet horse with his son. The other bags were found to contain paisa.

Chapter VI. Towns, Municipa-

ments.

Magistrate of Delhi undertaking the charge of the police of the environs of the city (1827). Faridabad meanwhile was left in his lities and Canton. charge, and he was considered responsible for maintaining the public peace on the Mathrah road between the limits of Burhivaka-pul, and Town of Ballabgarb, mauza Pirthala in Palwal. Ram Singh died in 1829, and Nabar Singh, his son, came to power. The earlier years of his reign saw great mischief and intrigue, caused by Abhe Ram and Pirthi Singh, the ministers, through whose mismanagement debts were contracted on account of the Estate. "In 1839 Abhe Ram was dismissed, and "Nawal Singh, the maternal uncle of Nahar Singh, having come into "power, he ejected Pirthi Singh also, and in conjunction with Ram-"parshad, nephew to Deo Kanwar, became the actual ruler, though "all acts continued to be done in the name of Raja Nahar Singh."

> In 1840 Nawal Singh becoming absolute, disputes ran high, and disorganisation increasing, the British Agent was appealed to, and our interference sought. Enquiries were instituted through a special Commissioner, deputed to Ballabgarh, and the management of the territory was experimentally entrusted to Kanwar Madho Singh, a grand-nephew of Raja Bahadar Singh, the first chief (within the time of our influence); but the plan failed, and parganah Faridabad was taken under direct British management. The young Raja however, protested against this arrangement, and as he had attained his majority, and urged his competency to manage his own affairs, the territory was restored to him. Yet, after a long reign, he was implicated in correspondence with the mutineers in 1857, and was hanged. The raj was confiscated, but the Rani dowager, Rani Kishan Kanwar, was allowed to reside in Ballabgarh, and she has recently bought the camindári rights from Government for Rs. 64,500. She herself gets a pension of Rs. 500 a month

Limits of Enu-	Year of Cen-	Persons.	Males.	Femries.
Whole town {	1858 1881	6,231 5,831	3.175 3.114	3,1′+0 2,707
Municipal limits {	1908 1875 1881	6,251 6,671 5,521	001 000 202 000 000 200	047 500 000 500 010 500

The population, as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868 1875, and 1881 is shown in the margin.

It is difficult to ascertain the limits within which the enumerations of 1963 and 1875 were taken The figures for the

population within municipal limits, according to the Census of 1868 are taken from the published tables of the Census of 1875; but it was noted at the time that their accuracy was in many cases doubtful. The Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows in the District Report on the Census of 1881 regarding the decrease of popula-

"In Ballabgarh the rate of mortality was also high, especially during 1872, when it rose to 64 per mille. The population, however, seems soul to have recovered itself, as in 1875 it amounted to 6,671, or 390 more than. in 1868. Between 1875 and 1881 it fell to 5,821, that is, 460 less than it

CHAP, VI.-TOWNS, MUNICIPALITIES AND CANTONMENTS.

was in 1868. This decrease is not so easily accounted for. One reason assigned for it is the eessation of Settlement operations. Ballabgarh being the head-quarters of the tahsil, large numbers of persons, including the Towns, Municipa-Settlement amla, patwaris, their families, and persons interested in Settle-lities and Cantonment operations, not permanently residing in the town, were collected there when the Census was taken in 1875. The absence of these persons in 1881 Town of Ballabgarh. would, however, seareely account for such a large decrease as 850, or nearly 13 per cent, in the population during the intervening six years."

The constitution of the population by religion, and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table XX of the Census Report of 1881:

Chapter VI. ments.



STATISTICAL TABLES-

APPENDED TO THE

GAZETTEER

OF THE

DELHI DISTRICT

(INDEX ON REVERSE).

"ARYA PRESS," LAHORE.

STATISTICAL TABLES.

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Delhi District.]

Table No. II, showing DEVELOPMENT.

1	. 2	. 8	4	5 '	6	7
Details.	1853-54	1838-59.	1803-64.	1868-69.	1873-74.	1878-79.
Population .			٠٠.	6,21,565		6,43,515
Cultivated seres]	5,25,255	5,32,874	5,25,676
Irrigate lacres .		·		2,06,553	2,13,192	1,75,722
Ditto (from Government works)	.]			1,22,173	1,18,615	95,946
Assessed Land Revenue, rupces	:	::	·	P,39,669	9,40,234	9,69,900
Revenue from land, rupees			.	5,70,681	8,88,184	8,70,934
Gross revenue, rupees				11,01,382	44,64,756	13,20,120
Number of kine		1 :		1,51,494	-1,59,500	1,65,627
,, sheep and goats	\			50,982	53,089	36,000
,, camels	:. .			718	600	20:
Miles of metalled mads)	, 71.	116
, unmetalled roads				431	870	, 20:
., Railways .]			2	. 12	1
Police staff			1,007	1,145	1,069	1,16
Prisoners convicted .			1,598	1,751	2,037	2,00
Civil suits,—unmber		3,341	3,777	5,083	7,139	7,01
n —value in rupees		2,10,361	5,73,055	9,87,933	5,70,486	7,15,77
Municipalities,—number			·		5	
-income in rupees				2,65,780	2,75,822	2,31,40
Dispensaries,—number of				2	4	
" —patients	! .			18,941	22,002	44,50
Schools,—number of	. į .		99.	. 03	101	11
er - schilare			4,303	3,655	4,563	6,00

Noin-The engages are taken from Tables Nos. I, III, VIII, XI, XV, XXI, XLI, XLV, L. LIX, and LXI of the Administration Report.

Table No. III, showing RAINFALL.

1		2	\$	4	, 3	6	7	s	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	19	19
	j	Annual rainfall in tenting of an ipon.										*********							
Rain-gauge station.		1. ta-65.	1.07.03	NG 10.	1.44.70.	5.4.1.	17.11.7	N. 46.2	1,7,1,7,1	P.T. C.	15.3-78	lsin.;	12:15	147.19	14:32-49	150.4	. 52 Pv.	Ex Cas	Are.
					i	,						1					:	-	-
nena			: 27	212	215	2:7	<u>:</u> :••	:73	: • •	217	1 54	215	13%	314	: 4	1,79	٠.,	27.	11-0
Sular			·	: •••	:	}	ŗ	2.	4::	5.i.	مزه	-	27:		' <u>.</u>	٠,٠		22	514
\$mepit .		145	2	17:	279	: ::30	ca-	: 519	274	234	A	٠. :	Ĵ,	161	` <u>2</u>	20			244.
Pallatyanti		[: : :	111	174	: 213	, Tre	E.		: :::::	240,	7	•	.3	١.			- A -	-	

Table No. IX, showing MAJOR CASTES and TRIBES.

•	2	1	7	4	s	G	7	8	9	10
Keriai Na n Census	Caste or tribe.	ij	Tor	a Sense	ęΨ.	}	Propor tion po nellie o			
lable No. VIIIA.			l'ersons.	Males.	l'emales.	lijudu.	Sikh.	Jain.	Mus.ilman	popula tion.
	Total paralation	- 1-	647,585	314,016	209,490	200,016	847	3,536	77,935	1,000
	Pathan	.	15,909	E,251	7,654		••		8,263	25
i	Jac	ı	107,075	57,839	39,216	65,606	650		1,209	166
è	1 44 4 4	1	an 521	34,530	15,478	12,127	10	**	5,594	- 53
ř3		1	9,954	5,412	(4,512	U,197	• • • 1	**	2,214	15
	Men		14,507	1,277	4,290		}	***	5,277	15
. 5	' Gujar]	25,500 }	14,443	11.175	13,511	8]		1,144	40
43	1 Mali	1	12,714	6,774	0,040	6,772			1	20
105	Loller		5.825	2.025	1,500	2.017	1 [2	5	. 6
27	Aidr .	1	14,544	5,145	6,0,0	8,120	••		25	25 78
27	Shekh	[10.197	23,935	24,240				25,040	78
37	Mughal		103,:	4 200	2,920			••	2,552	9
3	Buliman	[61,077	20,500	25,502	21,553	6		1,229	25 14
24	Salyad		5,501	4,403	4507			• • •	4,402	
23	Hairaci		4,310	2,527	2,013			••	2,597	3
63	Madari	1	7,144	1,615	1,526			••	1,615	
21	Nal		11,000	8,799	6,251	8,103	••	••	656	17
40	Jogi		6,006	2,625	1 2,504	2,6:0			47	
14	Banya		42,414	22,003	10,451	19,110		2,602	1	€0
16	Kinstri ·		4,6%	2.414	2.215	2.323	21	• •	55	
53	Kayath		2,557	2,000	1,507	2,047			25	
4	Chuhra		26,077	10,711	12,556	10,052	2	••	353	40
43			6,301	2,521	3,170	5,516]		3	11
5	Chanar		63,407	12,767	20,610	52,451			1 1	9:
£.			6,673	3,638	31,045	2.505			710	30
3.5	Jhinwa:		14,457	7,976	6,511	0,100			1,835	23
2.	Lohar		6,054	5,110	2,794	2,257		12		1 10
11			9,622	6,415	4,201	4,832	20		556	1:
13		٠.	18,724	7,833	4,891	7,171	5	٠	167	21
52		٠.	4,157	2,205	1,952	3,5,0	7		ors	9
20			3,393	3,006	2,597	659	••	••	2,520	
5.5	(} Qassab		4 722	2,107	2,217	****			2,103	'2
20	Sunar	••	4,043	2,237	1 3,578	2,178	23		35	9
66	i Kell	• •	4,403	2,337	2.032	2,'12		le le	1 21	l

Norm.-These figures are taken from Table No. VIIIA of the Census of 1881.

Table No. IXA, showing MINOR CASTES and TRIBES.

1		2			3	4	5
Seriai No. in Census Table . No. VIIIA.	Cas	ste or t	rice.		Persona,	Jiales.	Females
7	Arain		•••		1,585	F25	760
13	Biloch				1,515	648	670
25	Mirasi				1.756	866	890
31	Saini			• •	1,318 1,756 1,672	542	830
35	Fagir, mise	cclianco	us & unsp	ccified	1.428	801	627
36	Chhimba	• • •		••	2,620	1,431	1,195
42	Maliah				740	396	344
47	Manlar	• •			742	388	-354
55	Ror				666	347	319
56	Kalal	•••	•		758	416	342
C1	Dar71				583	313	270
62	Bhat				1,019	512	477
73	Gadaría 🍎	•••		•	2,457	1.280	1,168
. 87	Khatik		• • •		1,867	1,280.	840
02	Bhatyara				510	275	244
94	Banjara	• •	•••	•	1,854	939	915
102	Gusain				690	397	293
- 108	Bharbhun	ia	• •		1,223	667	556
.109 -	Agari	٠.,		• •	1,300	696	604
110	Rangrez		•••		681	376	305
111	Benawa		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	•	1,281	695	556
125	Ghosi				876	471	405
135	Kanjar	••	•••	- :-	591	283	808
142	Kachhi		• • •		1,323	693	630
145	Jalali		••		973	530	
147	Reya				1,993	-1,067	926

Note,-These figures are taken from Table No. VIIIA of the Census of 1881.

Table No. X, showing CIVIL CONDITION.

1		2	٠.	3	4	5	. с	,		
	DETAILS,		-	Sire	īlī.	Mar	RIED.	Whouls,		
<u></u>	DEIAII			Males.	Females.	Males.	Tenndes.	Maler.	Females	
Actual figures for robligious.	All religions Hindus Sikhs Jains Buddhiets Musalmans Christians			144,097 104,523 410 1,433 26,796 825	\$2,707 \$5,494 \$1 \$23 \$3,650 \$29	100,472 100,870 279 1,898 25,899	107,530 128,114 762 1,621 20,270 300	89.877 54,494 62 563 5,270	44,973 52,077 10 75 12,177 C7	
Distribution of every 10,000 wouls of each 4150.	All ages 0-10 10-15 15-20 20-25 25-29 23-47 49-50 59-00 Over 69	:: :: :: :: :: ::		4,155 9,508 7,517 4,315 2,545 1,571 087 047 493 418	2,750 9,509 4,419 550 60 83 42 61 84 84	4,520 194 2,009 5,423 6,423 7,102 7,102 7,107 6,752 5,823	5,570 404 5,495 0,211 9,591 0,110 6,203 6,231 3,950 1,726	555 55 557 557 1,576 1,767 2,769 4,242	1,000 51 224 144 1,702 1,702 0,703 1,702 0,703 1,703	

NOTE.-These figures are taken from Table No. VI of the Census Report.

Table No. XI, showing BIRTHS and DEATHS.

1	· ·	2	3	} · 4.	5	6	7	s	. 6:	30
-	-	Total i	PIETHT REG	ISTERED.	TOTAL I	DEATHS REA	istered.	Total	L DEATES	F10%
YEARS.		Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Female:	Persons.	Cholcra.	Small-	Fever.
1677 1578 1579 1559 1851		10,641 15,542	5,793 13,701	10,124 22,646	8,717 17,800 23,121 11,441 12,352	7,245 15,574 20,573 2,103 10,570	22,622	4: 416 2 157	763 545 12 1 1 72	8.55 5.75 1.55 15.75 15.75

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. I, II, VII, VIII, and IX of the Sanitary Report.

Table No. XI A, showing MONTHLY DEATHS from ALL CAUSES.

1	2	3	4	5 .	ō	7
Мохан	1877.	1879.	1579.	1559.	2571.	Total .
January February March April May June July August September October November December	1,105 5/2 1,009 1,105 1,25	1.743 1,455 1,445 1,493 2,255 2,255 1,549 1,569 2,515 6,515 7,525 1,534	2,119 1,600 1,442 1,442 2,609 1,609 1,109 3,416 6,451 5,652 5,753 4,551	2,767 1,746 1,541 1,201 1,750 1,800 1,761 1,932 1,932 1,932 1,931 2,930	1,719 1,729 1,720 1,720 1,720 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,725 1,724 1,725 1,724 1,725 1,724 1,725 1,726	6,502 7,255 7,255 7,557 7,553 9,476 9,476 9,476 15,734 20,436 20,436 25,735
Total	16,672	50,740	40,451	20,545	50,027	300,806 1

North.—These Egiptes are taken from Table No. 111 of the Sanitary Report.

Table No. XI B, showing MONTHLY DEATHS from FEVER.

1		2	. 3 .	* 4: .	·5	6	7
Монти.		- 1877.	1878.	1879.	1880	1881.	Total.
January Fobruary March April May June July August Soptomber October November December		640 442 635 030 682 809 697 599 520 522 915	772 620 777 905 1,019 1,557 668 1,030 1,030 4,749 4,749 2,784	1,638 1,808 1,037 1,093 1,905 1,852 758 2,608 5,381 7,769 6,401 3,945	2,808 1,408 1,238 1,125 1,441 1,485 870 865 947 1,074 1,378 1,429	1,214 1,249 1,183 1,408 1,201 1,217 908 661 1,081 1,090 1,582 2,064	6,572 5,027 4,690 5,170 6,248 6,420 4,140 5,763 9,882 15,610 16,381 11,487
Тота	٠ • • • • • •	8,865	22,729	35,835	. 15,577	15,784	97,740

Note. - These figures are taken from Table No. IX of the Sanitary Report.

Table No. XII, showing INFIRMITIES.

1 .	•	2	8	4.	5	6	7 :	s	. 8 -
	,	Ins	AND.	Bu	ind.	DEAF AN	о Димв.	Lep	ERS.
		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
All religions { Total Village Sikhs Musalmans	s	150 67 104 •43	70 45 52 	1,510 1,010 1,163 841	1,710 1,114 1,283 1 419	158 105 119 37	101- - 67 79 - 22	180 186 138	68 53 50 12

Nore. - These figures are taken from Tables Nos. XIV to XVII of the Census of 1851.

Table No. XIII, showing EDUCATION.

1	. 2	3	4	5	1	٠,	2	8	4 ·	5
	Ma	LES.	Fem	ALES.			MA	Les.	· Fest	ALES.
·	Under in- struction.	Can road and write.	Under instruction.	Can read and write.		,	Under in- struction.	Oan read and write.	Under in- struction.	Can read and write.
Il religions { Total Hindus Sikhs Jains Buddhists	6,443 1,685 4,078 164 291	14,676 8,598 8,853 843 1,585	293 53 41 1 3	530 84 120 	Musalmans Christians Tahsil Delhi ,, Souepat ,, Ballabgarh	•••	1,809 101 4,891 . 718 834	8,122 763 7,459 4,653 2,666	158 94 257	172 233 500 14 16

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. X111 of the Census of 1881.

Table No. XIV, showing detail of SURVEYED and ASSESSED AREA.

* . 1	•	2	3	4	5	0	7	8	9	. 10	11	12
<i>;</i> :			Con	IVATED.			Uncult	IVATED.			i	45 0 d
		Irrige By Gov- crnment works.	By pri-	Unirri- gated,	Totalcul- tivated.	Graz- ing lands.	Cultur- able.	Un- cultur- able.	Total unculti- vated.	Total area assossed.	Gross assess mont.	Unappropriated e u l t u r a ble waste, the pro- perty of Govt.
1868-69	•	122,173	84,680	318,402	525,255	163,197	12,044	109,176	289,417	814,672	939,669	1,280
1673-74	·	116,615	94,577	319,682	532,574	14,450	114,401	156,091	294,945	817,619	940,234	1,359
1878-79	••	95,346	60,376	349,954	525,676	10,115	183,642	135,500	279,257	801,933	262,200	

Nove.—Those figures are taken from Table No. VIII of the Administration Report, except the last column, which is aken from Table No. 1 of the same Report.

Norm.—These include are taken from Indle No. XXXIII of the Revenue Report for 1878-79.

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		-

TENURES held direct from Government as they stood in 1878-79.	0 7 8 9 9 10 11 13 13 14 15 16 17	Taisie Delii. Taisie Sonerae. Taisie Baleabgarie.	Yo. of ostates. Yo. of villagos. Yo. of holdersor abraviloiders. Gross area in Yo. of estates. Yo. of holdersor Ho. of villages. Gross area in Gross area in Yo. of ostates. If o of celates. Or ostates in Gross area in Yo. of holders. If o of holders.							Discussion and secusive D.						
m Gó		į,	dross area; in acces,		14,256	6,118		43,682	50°0S	165,819	302,598		3,235	4,196	GF	700,635
ot fro	*	E District,	No. of holdersor shareholders.,		GE GE	10		2,339	5,039	11,841	53,162		#.		日 :	73,638
lire(83	Whole	No. of villagos.		2	Ø		ë.	6	100	428	\ .	63	,	:	810
eld (61		No. of estates.		ន	S		25	8	169	493		ಣ	ا [.] ده		810
Table No. XV, showing TENURES h	1		NATURE OF TENURE.	A.—Estates not being village communities, and paving in common	III.—Paying 1,000 to Held by individuals or families under the ordinary	. 1V.—Phiping 1000 ru.) 2 pres recente and As above.	Propuntary cultivating villagii comnuntes.	B.—Zanindari Paring the recouns and holding the land in common	C.—Pattidari The land and revenue being dirided upon succeptul of customary shares, subject to succession by the law of injertance.	1).—Bhamainara In which possession is the measure of right in allands	E.—Mendor imper- fect patichary union had being the amount of the share or the or blugechara. extent of land held the soveralty.	F.—Grantees of Government not falling under any previous class, and paying redered previous class, and paying	1.—Proprietors, including individuals rowarded for sorvice or otherwise, but not purchasers of theorement waste.	II.—france	(4, Landholders who have redecined the verenue and are not members of any village commulty nor included in any preblous class.	TOTAL

	3	2 1	9		. 5	e.
Nutrit Redi.		Tirkel Politic	708312	Table Sagrat.	John Littebark.	Byark.
NATURE OF TENURE.	he seed. blad band	shifted as the state of the space of the spa	No. of solution	for extract, blad fund	19 .08 Addidod	to exist. Ideal faud
A.—TENANTS WITH RIGHT OF UCCUPANCY.		***************************************				
(a) Paying the amount of Government revenue only to the	71,139					
I. Paying rent (h) Paying such amount, plus a cash Malikanah	10.00.00 10.00 10.00.00 10.00.00 10.00.00 10.00.00 10.00.00 10.00.00 10.00.			-		
Total paying rant in tash Suddy	162,574					
11. Paying reat (4) Paying a stated ((1) Paying preduce and more in hind for the pro- (2) produce and bear han preduce 1,170 in kind, (4) in (4) in (5) in	1.274				•	
Total paying rent in tind	41.54					
GRAND TOTAL of Tenants with rights of eccupings 33,318.3	1,64,230					
L. For life. L. Subject to village service and payment of rent	toto		يان يوندوه بم	ي يستوه عود معمدين عربي	હો	
C.—TENANTS-AF-WILL. I. Paying in. (a) } produce and more in from the following in. (b) less than 4 produce in factors.	25.52 5.52 5.53 5.53				•	
D CULTIVATING SERVICE-GRANTS FROM IS FREE OF ALL REVENUE.		٠.				
1. Sankalap or Dharmarth 921	1,505 58.8	,				
GRAND TOTAL OF TRNURES 47,343	138,332		•		•	

Table No. XVII, showing GOVERNMENT LANDS.

		•							
. 1.	- ′	2	. 3	4	5	.6	7 .	- 8	.8
		. 5		Acres he cultirati	dd under ing læses.	- R	caainirg a	cree.	Pir.
		No. of estat	Total acres.	Cultivated.	Unculti-	Under Forest De. partment.	Under other Depart ments.	Under Deputy Commis- sioner.	Averago ye incomo, 18i to 1851-82.
Whole District Tabsil Delhi ,, Sonepat ,, Ballabgarh	·	24 21 2	4,165 4,127 38	::	::		3,519 3,481 38	646 646	5,446

NOTE.—These figures are taken from Table No. IX of the Revenue Report of 1881-82.

Table No. XIX, showing LAND ACQUIRED by GOVERNMENT.

Purpose for which acquired.	Acres acquired.	Compensation paid, in rupces.	Reduction of revenue, in rupees.
Roads Canals State Roilways Guaranteed Railways Miscellaneous	690 4,208 857 813 545	15,767 1,78,143 1,03,028 6,01,504 40,264	723 5,696 854 865 457
Total	6,113	9,03,776	7,595

Norm.-These figures are taken from Table No. XI of the Revenue Report.

Table No. XX, showing ACRES UNDER CROPS.

1 .	2	3	4 .	5	C	7	8	9	10	[1]	12	13	14	: 15	16
EARS.	Total,	Rice.	Wheat.	Jawar	Bajra.	Makai.	Jan.	Gram.	Noth.	Popps.	Tobacco.	Cotton.	Indigo.	Sugareane,	Vegetables.
875-74 1874-75 1876-76 1876-77 1677-78 1878-79 1878-79 1879-80 1880-81 1881-82	528,200 532,785 629,451 533,481 512,578 621,709 582,755 542,275 540,009	32,261 \$5,200 26,000 27,000 16,400 11,043 12,406 14,599 10,503	108,332 105,056 157,000 159,900 127,855 116,782 125,519 134,993 139,815	47,700 52,020 40,100 84,550 26,753 117,032 127,834 52,039 57,611	48,015 43,195 31,050 32,830 14,419 61,621 75,621 88,350 90,372	14,500 17,000 15,000 13,900 13,600 0,225 7,407 11,811 11,573	70,016 71,127 60,709 61,220 91,665 6,7535 79,147 82,151 74,803	37,615 36,640 50,700 67,500 84,000 59,391 63,000 50,101 48,312	15,000 12,000 14,000 11,955 2,350 4,672 5,913 8,272 7,413	<u> :- </u>	5,827 7,100 7,472 7,799 4,971 5,032 6,694	20,016 30,005 21,619 24,565 22,310 17,152 19,675 22,901 26,619	163 156 100 100 100 110 269	37,676 88,036 31,831	3,500 3,211
NAME OF TAI	SIL.			TAIISIL .	Average	s i'or T	IE TWO	EARS, F	281 Kon	0-81	то 19	91-8 2.			
Delhi Sonepat Ballabgarh	179,452 197,178 161,657	2,713 11,457	39,013 67,019 29,842	50,285 6.610 17,960	85,834 83,212 20,319	2,410 7,486 1,796	23,963 18,886 0,632	19,803 16,116 18,339	2,116 4,146 1,580		491 624 6,933	4,011 12,151 7,79s		7,916 12,559 915	526
TOTAL	541,267	14,200	135,904	54,855	89, 3 65	11,692	72,451	49,251	7,812		7,013	21,850	319	20.5E:	3.119

Norn.-These figures are taken from Table No. XLIV of the Administration Report

Table No. XXI, showing RENT RATES and AVERAGE YEILD.

	1		 المحادثات والرساسات	2		8
23	जंबर्ट जे संस्कृ	ı .	Rent po suite i crops,	r acre r for the s as it el psp.eg.	nifotia	Average produce per acre as esti- inated in 1881-82.
Rica Indigo Sotion Sugar Oplum Induces Wheat United United Off Scola United	rited	Mexfraunt Mufrauna Mayluada Misfrauna Maxfrauna Misfrauna Misfrauna	 Re. 10 475 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	A. 0000	r	######################################
Gram Baley Rojra Jawar Vegelables Tea	;; ;		:- :- :- :-		••	700 200 200 240

North-These figures are taken from Table No. NLVI of the Administration Report.

Table No. XXII, showing NUMBER of STOCK.

	1			2	3	4	5	0	7.
*****				Wnorm	DISTRICT T	OR THE	Tansies p	OR THE TE	\R 1878-79.
Kişb	or Htoci	۲.		1EGS-G9.	1873-74.	1675-79.	Delbi.	Sonepat.	Ballab- garh.
Cows and bullock	۹			161,191	159,500	165,627		·	·
Horses	**	••		3,511	1,920	กรถ	l		
Pontes	••			1,253	950	425	ł		
Donkeys	••			5,455	4,350	3,025	l		
Sheep and goats	••	••		£0,782	63,088	36,000	· .		`
Pigs	•••	••	·	32,741		4,500	1 2	Vot arailab	le
Camela	••	••	••	718	600	295			
Cartá	•	••		0,538	5,350	4,946			
Plongha	••	•••		20,200	24,850	26,424	ł		
Boats		•	• • •	86	37	. 39			

Note. - These figures are taken from Table No. XLV of the Administration Report.

Table No. XXIII, showing OCCUPATIONS of MALES.

Total population	• • •	er e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e			<u></u>			1. 12. 12		
Nature of occupations	1	2	3 .	4	5.	· 1	2 · · · · ·	3	4	. 5
Total population	 		Males			aber.	Noture of commentance			years .
2 Occupation specified 71,506 146,474 217,080 18 Pastorul 253 867 1,1	Namb	Nature of occupations.	Towns.		Total.	MuM	Nature of occupations.	Towns.		Total.
14 Landowners	10 11 12 13 14 15	Occupation specified Agricultural, whether simple or combined. Civil Administration Army Religion Barbers Other professions Monoy-lenders, general traders, pedlars, &c. Dealers in grain and flour Corn grinders, parchers, &c. Confectioners, green-grocers, &c. Carriers and boatmen Landowners	71,506 4,264 3,130 1,255 1,294 1,178 1,894 2,821 2,057 436 2,083 3,187 2,145	146,474 88,346 1,648 72 2,886 7,789 2,090 4,096 721 458 2,106 54,048 22,057	217,080 92,610 4,773 1,327 4,746 8,514 2,092 4,917 6,153 1,157 2,588 54,890 24,202	18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 20 27 28 29 30 81 32	Pastoral Cooks and other servants Water-carriers Sweepers and scavengers Workers in reed, cane, leaves, straw, &c. Workers in leather Boot-makers Workers in wool and pashm """, stik """, cotton """", wood Potters Workers and dealers in gold and silver. Workers in ron General labourers	253 0,903 2,9014 1,528 1,528 1,527 2,590 205 573 2,417 1,480 1,480 1,480 1,480 4,832	867 991 993 5,601 1,217 3,187 140 8 6,074 2,843 2,481 4,481 1,295 7,303	5,000 1,120 7,057 8,009 7,129 2,524 3,975 0,201 405 551, 8,491 4,325 4,447 1,900 12,202 7,077

Nore.—These figures are taken from Table No. XII A of the Census Report of 1881:

Table No. XXIV, showing MANUFACTURES.

Table No				1				12		
1	2	- 8	4	. 5	6_	7	8	9	10	. 11
	Silk.	Cotton.	Wool.	Other fab- ries.	Paper	Woo'd.	Iron.	Brass and copper.		Dyeing and manufactur ing of dyes.
Number of mills and large factories Number of private looms or small	110	3,010	72	121		1,237	911		227	567
works. Number of workmen { Male in large works. { Female Number of workmen in small works	· 824	4,78	168	226	· 116	2,106	1,82	0 438	466	1,204
or independent artisans. Value of plant in large works Estimated annual out-turn of all works in rupees.	1,83,828	3,74,88	9,178	16,815	<u></u>	<u> </u>	1	ž,12,770	91,690	1,02,462
	12	. 1	S	14		15	16	. 17 .	18	19
-	Leath	cr. com	mon)il-pres ing an refining	d n	nmina nd wls.	Car pets.	Gold, silver, and jewellery.	Other manufactures.	
amber of mills and large factories number of private looms or smal	1,8	661	791	48	1	::	35	1,241	1,62	
works. Number of workmen { Male in large works. { Female Number of workmen in small work or independent artisans.		١.	,987	 	7		105	4,024	31,451	54,30
Value of plant in large works Estimated annual out-turn of al works in rupeos.	1 10,07,7	<u>l</u>	,382	2,06,69		<u>:: : </u>	14,178	55,00,702	4,03,237	

Note -These figures are taken from the Report on Internal Trade and Manufactures for 1881-8

Table No. XXV, showing RIVER TRAFFIC.

. 1	2	3	4 5 Average duration of Voyage	6
Trade,	To	Principal Merchandise Carried.	Summer. Winter or or floods, low water.	Distance in miles.
From Bagpat, Zillah Mecrut opposite Jhundpur, tahsil Sonepat Delhi Agra	Delhi Agra Delhi	Witerer Branti Duries caracies .	2 4 or 5 days, through the Agra Caulal. 10 or 11 days, through the Agra Canal.	20 150 150

North -These figures are taken from pages 759, 760 of the l'amine Report.

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	1	S TE	ori	5 .	ຜົີ	: '	න .	ا د	5 1		ر	. C.			· . :	so.	∞ . 	· •	8	<i>«</i> »	ੂ 	۵. 		<u>.</u>
			ig	89	Ħ	£ .	13	£ .	es .	C1 -	<u>-1</u> .	2	о	so ·	:	:	∞ ,	œ	ω.	s.	· [∞] .	80		* .
₽.		Tobac	zz.	C1	e1 .	c1	61	C1 ·	61	G1 :	-1	C1	c)	e1	cı	¢1	c,i	c1 .	C1	· 61	·c1	C1	C1	61
-		ood.	Gh.	Ħ	13 .	₹ .	4.	ده .	= -	٠o .	ø) .	2 .	-	;· .	. :	;	:	··:	:	:	, : .		:	. :
7	•	Firew	øj.	115	105	104	<u> </u>		61 60	13	<u>e</u>	eg E	ຂ	8 .	ဇွ	8	ග ි-	5.	76	100	80	8	9	8
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1871-72 ... 1871-72 ... 1873-73 ...

. 1875-76 .. 1876-77 ..

1874-76 ..

1878-78 ...

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Table No. XXVII, showing PRICE of LABOUR.

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1976-91 1979-91 1931-82	6 6 6 6	š ė	0 3 6	0 2 0	000	14 0	0 5	8 0	3 1 5 1 5 1	20	6	\$ \$ \$ \$

North-There figures are taken from Table No. XLVIII of the Administration Report.

Table No. XXVIII, showing REVENUE COLLECTED.

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- 1507-00 1509-70 1579-71 1571-72 1572-73 1572-74 1572-75 1572-77 1572-77 1572-79 1172-79 1172-79 1172-79		 \$,70,681 \$,78,765 \$,91,478 \$,91,473 \$,71,603 \$,71,603 \$,71,703 \$,70,703 \$,7	13,514 19,133 9,713 7,931 10,231 8,637 10,633 12,633 12,643 7,242 C4,473 21,473	::	55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55	5.000000000000000000000000000000000000	11 11 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 1	138,471 1,4120.7 1,4121 1,4121 1,412.7 1,412.7 1,412.7 1,612.7	# #75% # 50% F # 10% F #

Norm.—These figures are taken from Table No. XLIV of the Revenue Report. The following revenue is easily is the example form. Curate, Customer and Sut, Astronold Taxes, Fore, Custom.

Table No. XXIX, showing REVENUE DERIVED from LAND.

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Table No. XXX, showing ASSIGNED LAND REVENUE.

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Total District (4)	F,042	0.546	123	246	5,42	1 5,1	23	554	£76	27,173	75,731	34	5,16	3 40	30.

Norm.—These thours are taken from Table No. XII of the Revenue Report of 1881-82.

(6).—Tabell details not available.

Table No. XXXI, showing BALANCES, REMISSIONS and TAKAVI.

				lond recenue spees	Reductions of fixed demand	
,	YEAR.		Flxed rovenue.	Fluctualing and miscel- lancous revenue.		Takavi advances ir rupecs.
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Norg. - These figures are taken from Tables Nos. I, II, III, and XVI of the Revenue Report.

Table No. XXXII, showing SALES and MORTGAGES of LAND.

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757ir 15-3	63 : 64 : 64 :	100 113 103 103	1,2% 1,2% 916 1,414		55 51 52 53 53 53 53 53 53		9,617 6,559 6,569 16,211	14 (100	# 17 # 18 # 18 # 18 # 18 # 18 # 18 # 18
Tal vit T date for 2 tress— 17-9-51 to 15: Taleil Debil , folloppit , Isble cont	71-84. 	10: 10: 10:	1,037 5/13 6/12	51,572 \$1,671 21,172	51 124 7	1117	7,615 19,656 1,165	47	Jal	, \$*,6-? * \\ 3 # \\ 1

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Table No. XXIIII, showing SALE of STAMPS and RECISTRATION of DEEDS.

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Table No. XXXIV. showing LICENSE TAX COLLECTIONS.

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Table No. XXXV, showing EXCISE STATISTICS.

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Total Average	15	125 25	15 17	8,594 8,679	28,165 7,231	222 41	203 42	2001 413	1111	1,039 240]	251	2c,939 144,093	147,723 2:1,545	292,416 58,483.

Table No. XXXVI, showing DISTRICT FUNDS.

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1874-75 1875-76 1876-77 1877-78 1878-79 1879-80 1880-81	82,500 70,014 80,513	2,504 1,816 3,961	103,520 65,761 62,756 56,755 94,392 57,454 50,770 54,476	2,593 2,620 2,415 1,935 2,058 2,440 2,440 2,490	*4,164 1,500 570 707 1,074 045 1,075	10,0%2 11,423 12,980 10,2%7 10,990 14,6%0 10,410 15,992	263 1,535 3,550 5,678 4,338 0,016 4,634 4,475	1,740 120 120 120 201 170 841 170	20,400 20,626 21,026 21,026 21,026 21,027 21,027 21,027 21,027	29,542 29,524 68,525 47,720 47,740 47,740 47,740 56,670

Note.—These figures are taken from Appendices A and B to the Annual Review of District Fund operations.

District Post excluded.

Table No. XXXVII, showing GOVERNMENT and AIDED SCHOOLS

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	15	19	[5]	::
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FIGURES FOR BOYS.

1977-78 1974-79 1974-79 1970-91 1991-92	1 1 1 1 1 1	55 55 55 55 64	1 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	25 0 4	u:: 20 13 13	293 845 145 125 107	1 2 2 2 2	ន្ត ខ្លួន ខ្លនេ ខ ខ ខ ខ ខ ខ ខ ខ ខ ខ ខ ខ ខ ខ ខ ខ ខ ខ ខ	1-1-066	914 901 115 152 125	C) 19 (4)	** \$77 \$12 \$48	5 565 5 748 5 748 5 521	50 40 41 41	1,012 40 1,012 27 1,012 27 1,110 27 2,150 27	1,0,4

FIGURES FOR GIRLS.

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	5	7	, '			 • •		- 1			,						_

N. R.—Since 1170-50, in the case of both Government and Aided Schools, these a letter completed the Middle School course are shown in the returns as attending High Schools, and these entry shocker completed the Primary School course are shown as attending Middle Schools. Provide a total course and showning the Upper Primary Department were included in the returns of Middle Facels in the course of Principal under the structure division in the lateration Lapartment where the lateration that the facels in the course of Primary Department where the laterate in the course of the Institute of the Right Schools in the course of the Institute of the returns of the Middle and Fridary Department and to the returns a first laterate of the primary Repartment. Before 1770 for Landboard Government Schools if the property of the primary Repartment. Before 1770 for 1770 and schools if the primary tens they have been shown to be assumed to the Department of the Chapter Primary and the schools. Make the primary as a formerly the first and the manufactor are now returned as Foglish Schools. Hence the returns before 1870-15 do not affined the measured relating and other appropriate with the relations of a Primary school primary.

Table No. XXXVIII, showing the working of DISPENSARIES.

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1	of Dis-					. N.	naces	OF PA	TIENTS	TREAT	rrd.	<u> </u>				
Name of Dispensary.	of insar		-	Men.					Homen.				C/	hildren.	<u> </u>	
	Clars	1877.	1878.	1879.	1850.	1891.	1877.	1878.	1670.	1890.	1851.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881
lellii Do. Lal Kua Do. Sadr	C. II. Snl	7,761 1,577	10,637	11,213 2,376	11,895 3,103	1:),112 5,162	2,943 833	2,610 1,315	3,251 1,321	3,851 763	3,513 1,713	2,355 1,000	2,595 598	3,619 770	3,167 400	8,5 1,4
llazar Ballabgarh Sonepat Faridabad Alipur Mahrauli	3rd 2nd 2nd 2nd 2nd 3rd 3rd	2,272 1,779 3,024 1,676 610 2,193	2,031 2,031	2.785 8.063 2,075 613	2,565 2,171 3,605 2,041 801 2,723	2,555 2,701 4,603 1,003 023 2,307	1,001 762 818 454 177 608	1,467 740 834 634 226 745	1,605 941 682 715 108 743	1,212 591 830 493 198 655	1,078 705 931 635 165 701	1,015 205 1,055 616 147 549	2,264 1,027 1,029 779 167 485	1,590 759 647 648 116 369	1,053 601 853 891 88 88 201	1,2 1,0 5 1,0 3
Najafgarlı Total	371	21,83	4 20,02	0 29,520	20,320	33,931	0,058	8,631	P,359	8,635	910 0,557	7,062	9,517	0,018	7,026	0,8
		18	19	20	21	22	23	21	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
	T i		7.	tal Pati	cuts.	<u></u>		In-il	oor Pe	tients.			Expend	iture is	Rupe	ir.
Name of Dispensary.	Class of Dispen-	1977	. 1578.	1579.	1550.	1831.	1877.	1878.	187P.	1850.	1851.	1877.	1576.	1879.	1880.	188
Deihi Do. Lai Ku Do. Sadr	C. II	12,30 3,41		i	4,365	6,291	550	870	092	712	840	5,186 559	10,063 563	7,530 575	8,076 549	6,0
Barar Ballabgarh Sonepat Faridalad Alipur Mahrauli Najeigarh	2nd 2nd 3rd 3rd	4,5,6,6,6,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0	6 4,12 31 6,49 36 3,4 70 1,0	9 4,448 11 4,592 14 3,438 19 957	4,563 5,263 5,268 2,625 1,000 3,652 775	4,778 4,322 6,661 3,147 914 3,395 1,436	63 169	01 191 93	72 130 51		50 162 66	585 1,741 2,024 651 360	765 769 2,920 611 657 538	731 2,614 651 541	582 744 1,927 498 554 455 249	2,1
Total .		85,8	54 44,8	07, 46,93	45,18	53,140	782	1,220	1,245	993	1,136	12,83	3 16,72	13,64	13.68	11,

Norr.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. 11, 1V, and V of the Dispensary Report.

Table No. XXXIX, showing CIVIL and REVENUE LITIGATION.

` 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	. 8	9.
	Nu	mber of Ciril	Suits concerni	ng	Falue in ru	pces of Suits o	oncerning *	
YEAR.	Money or movable property.	Rent and tenancy rights.	Land and revenue, and other matters.	Total,	Land.	Other matters.	* Total.	Number of Revenue cases.
1878 1879 1880 1881	6,500 5,405 6,812 6,521 5,786	. 442 . 516 , 1,277 971 865	498 607 895 489	7,440 6,618 7,084 7,081	58,045 28,602 57,098 56,202 88,016	6,80,720 6,82,971 7,28,303 6,50,789 7,52,076	7,18,774 7,11,578 7,86,401 7,06,941 7,90,692	8,621 9,562 12,261 11,010

Norz.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. VI and VII of the Civil Reports for 1878 to 1880, and Nos. II and III of the Reports on Civil Justice for 1881 and 1882.

* Suits heard in Settlement courts are excluded from these columns, no details of the value of the property being available.

Table No. XL, showing CRIMINAL TRIALS.

	1	2	3	4	5	, 6
	DETAILS.	1678.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.
Forsons tried.	Brought to trial Discharged Acquitted Convicted Committed or referred	4,920 1,178 1,154 2,599	4,174 1,299 855 1,964 24	4,521 1,189 1,011 2,801	5,229 1,785 1,021 2,363 42	5,155 2,021 947 2,131 46
Cases dis-	Summons cases (regular) (summary) Warrant cases (regular) (summary) Total cases disposed of	3,261	2,544	3,009	1,705 142 778 410 8,125	1,553 167 906 315 2,940
need to	Death Transportation for life for a term Penal servitude		3	3 3	2	2 2 1
Number of persons sentenced to	Fine under Rs. 10	1,367 216 15 5	1,103 177 28	1,517 210 18 17 1	1,661 216 34 8	1,875 206 22 5
abor of r	Imprisonment under 6 months , 6 months to 2 years ,, over 2 years Whipping	561 196 43	390 184 25 211	323 / 141 32 130	215 120 19 147	278. 116 17 103
m X	Find sureties of the peace Recognisance to keep the peace Give sureties for good behaviour	30	25 83	16 25 96	28 26 93	35 129

Note:—These figures are taken from Statements Nos. III and IV of the Oriminal Reports for 1878 to 1880, and Nos. IV d V of the Criminal Reports for 1881 and 1882.

Table No. XLI, showing POLICE INQUIRIES.

												٠.		I	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	n	12	18	14	15	16
	Nu	mber of	cases i	nquire	d into.	Nu		persor ummor		sted or	N	umber q	f perso	nė cosiv	içted.
Nature of offence.	1877	1878	1879	1880	1531	1877	1878	1879	1880	1881	187	1878	1879	1880	1881
Rioting or unlawful	9	. 4	Б	. 5	. 8	124	80	28	39	,	82	29	21	\38	44
Murder and attempts	8	. 7	. 6	8	6	14	9	, 16	6		9	. 3	7	. 5	· 2
erious offences the person	. 35	36	22	. 21	23	.156	64	55	54	108	108	44	. 32	48	55
serious offences	386	553	447	852	359	192	508	211	204	170	142	220	. 151	-141	108
I minor offences minst the person le theft	39 . 52	- 33	.27	.40 36	25	44 32	31 76	. 40 . 26	48 27	54 27	27 25	22 61	19 -24	29 20	31 19
against property.	931	1,322	925	599.	493	778	1,057	734	521	441	602	780	551	397	317
otal cognizable of- fences	1,507	2,036	1,476	1,094	961	1,280	1,550	1,103	891	886	931	1,144	790	647	589
Rioting, unlawful as- sembly, affray Offences relating to	5		. 3	. 2	6	24		19	· 17	39	19-	`	14	9	35
marriage	1				.1.	2		••	••	ː••.	ļ, •• <u> </u>	•••	. : '		••
Total non-cognizable offences	65	- 81	55	74	. 70	124	100	89	· 114	134	. 83	76	57.	62	103
GRAND TOTAL of of-	1,572	2,117	1,531	1,165	1,031	1,404	1,680	1,192	1,005	1,020	1,014	1,220	847	700	691

Note.-These figures are taken from Statement A of the Police Report.

Table No. XLII, showing CONVICTS in GAOL.

	. '												
1	2	3 .	4.	5 -	6	7	, 8 .	. 9	10	11	12	13	14
	No. in 1 beginning yea		No. ing during t	orisoned he year	Relig	ion of co	nricts.	Prev	ious occ	upatio	n of ma	lecon	victs.
YEAR.	Males.	Females	Males.	Females.	Musalman.	Hindu,	Buddhist and Jain.	Official,	Professional.	Service.	Agricultural,	Commercial.	Industrial.
1877-78 1878-79 1879-80 1890-81	388 . 461 800 252 : 890	4 21 19 16 - 24	785 1,102 858 683 493	69 49 45 58 89	489 90 139	735 100 168	29 28 2 2	**************************************	43 91 25	47- 195 16 56 146	387 595 109 92 184	24 21	::
	15	16	17	18	10	20 .	21	22	23	24	25		26
·		Leng	ih of sente	nee of c	onvicts.	•		P	rerious onricted	ly ,	Pecun	iary	esults.
YEAR.	Under 6 months.	6 months to 1 year.	1 year to 2 years.	2 years to 5 years.	5 years to 10 years.	Ovor 10 years and transportation.	Death.	Once.	Twice.	More than twice.	Cest of main-		Profits of convict labour.
1877-78 1678-79 1879-80 1880-81	363 621 96 109 76	268 414 112 175 29	342 406 35 94 218	150 164 12 21 46	32 22 1 11 22	35 6 12 4 11	::	62 49 50 37 36	50 12 13 21 21	36 25 20 23 32	19,0 22,8 19,2 19,2 20,2	98 371 262 261	1,873 2,930 1,883 3,074

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. XXVIII, XXIX, XXX, XXXI, and XXXVII of the Administration Report.

Table No. XLIII, showing the POPULATION of TOWNS

1	3 ,	3	4	5	6	7	8 .	9	10
Tahsil.	Town.	Total popula- tion.	Hindus.	Sikhs.	Jains,	Musalmans.	Other religions.	No. of occupied houses.	Persons per 100 occupied houses.
Delhi	Delhi .	. 173,398	95,484	856	2,676	72,519	1,858	17,493	991
	Najaigarh	. 3,999	2,117	` 13	229	1,640	••	4 89	818
Sonepat	Sonepat .	. 18,077	5,297	- 5	1,011	6,764		2,097	624
Ballabgath	Faridabad .	. 7,427	5,367	5		1,988	67	923	805
	Ballabgarh	5,621	4,464		. 37	1,320	. 	924	630

Table No. XLIV, showing BIRTHS and DEATHS for TOWNS.

·	-									,		·: ·
1	. 2	3	4	5	6	. 7	8	.9	10	11.	12	13 -
TOWN.	Sex.	Total popu- lation by the Census of	Tota		e regiet he year		cring	Total	lealts reg	istered di	ring the	¥£2
101121		1975.	1877.	1578.	1579.	1850.	1551.	1877.	1578.	1579.	1239.	1551.
Delhi { ,, Suburbs { Sonepat {	Males Females Males Females Males Females	62,040 53,952 24,531 29,020 7,040 6,557	3,151 3,014 1,271 1,199 242 176	2,857 2,835 979 945 244 178	2,164 2,073 610 485 166 144	2,943 £95 £15		3,076 2,696 553 659 176 126	5,515 5,692 1,553 1,572 152 160	4,943 4,931 + 1,631 977 853 272	- 9,450 2,821 638 525 - 103 - 133	

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. LVII of the Administration Report.

Table No. XLV, showing MUNICIPAL INCOME.

1 ,	2	3	4	5	. 6
Name of Municipality.	Dellist.	Honoput	Ballabgarts.	Varklabad.	Nafatiparli.
Class of Municipality	I.	IIL.	. m.	m.	11I.
1570-71	1,93,272	6,121	2,619	2,217	1,625
-1671-72	2,39,830	7,510	3,045	3,146	1,593
1572-73	2,23,622	7,843	3,934	3,694	1,034
1873-74	2,60,257	. 6,410	8,233	2,540	2,752
1674-75	2,79,673	10,416	3,703	3,672	2,259
1875-7G	2,65,775	1,958	5,0 <u>44</u>	3,600	. 6,003
1676-77	2,05,070	2,116	. 3,352	2,915	- 9,211
1577-78	2,25,552	2,445	3,505	` 8,490	2,662
1576-79	2,13,631	2,099	4,145	2,651	7,272
1679-89	2,25,63	10,485	2,653	2,347	2,013
1850-61	2,71,055	11,495	4,015	2,729	2,723
1851-52	2,76,500	11,505	3,992	3,451	2,665.
and desirate the state of the s		<u> </u>			·

Table No. XLVA, showing MANUFACTURES.

					` ' .	
1	. 2 .	3	4	5 '5	Ü	1 .
				[, -	·
	- Silk.	Cotton.	loo'	Other Fabrics.	Paper.	Wood.
				. Paories.		
		·				.
imber of mills and large factories	· · · · · ·	· · . ·	·	1		
imber of private looms or small works	101	168	5	15	7	, 71
imber of workmen in (Male		• ••	`	`	·	
large works. Female		٠٠.				
amber of workmen in small works or in-	310	- 692	18	,42	39	283
dopendent artisans.			:			
due of plant in large works						
stimated annual out-turn of all works in	1,32,502	1,22,781	. 3,206	5,401	8,895	1,18,554
rupees.	·					·
	s I	Ð	10	1	12	13
			10,	11	12	10
•				Dyeing and	•	Pottery,
• •	Iron.	Brass and copper.	Buildings.	manufactur- ing of dyes.	Leather.	common and
•	'	Ţ	•	ing or dyes.		ginzeu.
umber of mills and large factories			·			· · · · · ·
umber of private looms or small works		**	••	"		· · · · .
umber of private fooms or small works	102	118	40	46	268	43
		••	••		•• •	
large works. (Fomale		••	••	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		. ••
umber of workmen in small works or in-	335	432	169	307	1,584	281
dependent artisans.			•		•	
aluo of plant in large works		••	••			
stimated annual out-turn of all works in	66,068	2,11,060	73,385	42,867	8,07,006	31,706
rupces.		,				
	14	15	16	17	18	19
]	Ì	· · · · · ·	
	Oil-pressing and refin-	Tabilitiiiii	Carpets.	Gold, silver,	Other manufac-	Total.
	ing.	and shawls.	Ompets.	jewellery.	tures.	Tour.
				ļ		
number of mills and large factories			 .	:	••	
lumber of private looms or small works	. 63		14	790	176	2,026
Tumber of workmen in \ Male				.:	•	· · :
large works. { Female					•	
Sumber of workmen in small works or in-	148		59	8,430	, . 850	8,929
dependent artisans.	. '				;· ;: :	
falue of plant in large works						
Estimated annual out-turn of all works in	1,86,096		11,328	53,97,220	2,09,400	73,77,568

Nore.—These figures are taken from the Report on Internal Trade and Manufactures for 1881-82.

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DISTRICT. DISTRICT. DISTRICT. Delhi 821 825 275 824 290 701 648,515 648,515 1,19,330 876,544 1,189,314 1,189,314 1,189,314 1,189,414 1,180,414
1 1 1878 1878 1878 1878 1878 1878 1878 1879
Total square miles (1881) Cultivated square miles (1878) Culturable square miles (1878) Irigated square miles (1878) Irigated square miles (1878) Arengo square miles (1878) Arengo square miles (1881) Total population per square Total population (1881) Total population (1881) Total population per square Total population (1881) Total population (1881) Total population (1881) Total population per square Total population (1881) Total population (1881) Total population (1881) Total population (1881) Total population per square Total population (1881)
Total Call In A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A

Chapter I, A. Descriptive. The hills and the river.

to the hills and to the river. The former, which at the southern end join on to the hills of Mewat and so meet with the Aravalis, at the other start from the river at Wazirábád, four miles north of Delhi, and skirting the present city on the north-west and west, stretch away nearly due south to Mahrauli. Before reaching this place, how ever, they branch out into two halves, one going full south, the other sweeping round in a curve to the south-east to Arangpur, whence again it turns south-west, and uniting with the other branch below Bhátí, holds on southward to Kot, and so out of the district into Gurgaon. But though the main direction may thus be described, there are here and there irregularly shaped spurs which break the continuity of the range, and at the same time greatly extend its area. The irregular oval enclosed by the branching halves above spoken of is really a plateau of a light, sandy soil, lying high and dry, but with a very useful general slope to the south-east. Here in different places are earth work dams aggregating several miles in length, made

to catch the drainage. Of these more will be said further on.

The hills of Delhi, though not attractive in themselves, give a pleasant view across the Jamna, and in clear weather allow, it is said, even a glimpse of the Himalayas. Their surface is generally bare, supporting little or no vegetation save a stunted likar (Acacia Arabica), or karil (Capparis aphylla), or the small bush of the beri (Zizyphus nummularia) which, with its prickly thorn, is so inhospitable to the foot traveller. The surface of the ground is sprinkled with thin laminæ of mica, which shine in the sunlight like gold. The stone, which juts up from the ground here and there, is hard and often sharp-edged. Water of course lies very deep, and irrigation water of course lies very deep, and irrigation to the sharp-edged. by well almost everywhere impracticable. A moderate pasture is obtained by flocks of sheep and goats herded by Gújar boys. This tribs has appropriated almost entirely the hill villages, as they suit their pastoral traditions, and pastoral traditions are less repugnant than a settled husbandry to thieving, a habit universally attributed to the Gújar. The highest point of the range probably is near beides 1,045 feet above the sea and 360* above the Jamna railway bridge The breadth varies greatly. At Arangpur it is not less than ten miles, while towards the northern end the hills dwindle into a mere rocky ridge, only a few yards broad. That 'Ridge, however, since the memorable hot weather of 1857, is a name not likely to be forgotten by Englishmen. The hills divide the district into two ports Without going minutely into details, it may be said that this larger half of the district also the more fertile and more populous. consists of three parts, the Khadar or riverain of the Jamna, the district into two parts. Bángar or level mainland, and the Dábar or lowland subject to floods. The Khadar lies rather low, has a light sandy soil, and easy

The Khádar and Bángar.

The Bangar is higher, and by nature, drier. The Western Jamna Canal, however, traverses its whole length and affords too copious irrigation from wells.

^{*} Making the bridge itself 685 feet above the level of the sea. The highest recorded flood of the river at this point was 673.7 feet. The sun-dial in the Fort at Delhi gives 825 feet, but this is somewhat too high.

Chapter I, A.

Descriptive.

The Jampá.

stream, and the ascent of the old bank is in most places plainly visible. How or when the river changed its course is not known; but there seems some probability that the change was violent rather than a gradual one. The physical conformation above alluded to favours this; while some countenance is also given to it by the fact that the shapes of the village areas in the Khadar do not at all suggest a gradually elongating boundary, as would probably be the case had the river gradually receded. Nor is the latter supposition rendered likely by the circumstances, so far as known, of the origin of those villages. It may at any rate be considered certain that the river once flowed beneath the walls of Sunipat, and down south by Narelah, to somewhere near Azádpur on the Grand Trunk Road near Delhi, where, beginning to feel the influence of the hills, it must have turned sharply to the east. Below Delhi its course seems to have been in the same way immediately east of the Bangar bank. This, in the immediate vicinity of the city, abuts almost directly on the stream where it now runs; the soil is hard, high, and in many places rocky. The Khadar, after reappearing in the fertile lowlands of Indarpat and Ghayáspur, is again cut off at Okhlah, where the Bángar bank juts boldly forward, giving an advantageous site for the head of the Agra Canal. For some few miles below this the ground continues the same, but then the old river would seem to have taken again a more westerly course than the present—to have passed close by the ancient village of Tilpat: then turning again south-east along a noli still visible, to have rounded closely the high bank on which the Khádar-Bángar villages in this part mostly stand. From Gharorah to Chansah this line is very conspicuous. The Khadar south of Delhi is thus a very narrow slip of country, often only a single village in breadth.

South division of the District.

The country immediately south of Delhi as far as Mahrauli, Toghlakábád, and Molarband, is rocky and undulating. This and the picturesque ruins abounding almost everywhere give the scene an interest not often found in the plains of India. Beyond this again to the south, the country lying between the hills to the west and the Khadar already described on the east becomes more flat and open, and so fit for the passage down the eastern side of its length of the Agra Canal, which keeps an almost perfectly straight course at a low level down into the Palwal tahsil. Parallel with it, roughly speaking, is the metalled road to Agra which passes through Ballabgarh, at a distance of 22 miles from Delhi. The soil of this part is mostly a light, sandy loam, which, under good hands, is very fairly productive. The country between the Agra Road and the hills to the west begins to get level a few miles below Badarpur; it is mostly sandy, bearing the detritus from the hill slopes, and in the rainy months is marshy and in places flooded—the passage of the water is toward the south, where it debouches at the top of the Palwal tahsil.

Southern drainage lines.

The drainage of the Delhi district, as may be easily seen from the map, is divided completely by the hills, and may be separately considered in these two portions. The drainage of the southern part is simple. There are three main outlets for the north Ballabgarh drainage, in its rush down eastward from the hills to the river—the

CHAP. I.—THE DISTRICT.

Chapter I, A. Descriptive. Southern drainage lines.

(7.) Another nalá comes down from the hills near Kothrah Muhabatábad. It. passes to the north of Pakal, and touches the north of the Nekpur lands joining with Nos. 5 and 6 in Kheri. 6 of Naglah, and the north of Koreishipur, it goes through Sarirpur of Naglah, and the north No 2 and 4 in Shamonur and Madalpur, and joins No. 3 and 4 in Shamapur. Thence, moistening the lands of Tharsetli, Kandhaoli, and Kailgaon, it passes through Naglah, Jogian, Harphalah, Maholah and Kabulpur Bangar This nalá comes out of the hills under Mangar; it is in-

juriously violent, and when in flood brings down a large body of water. Its line lies close by Dhauj, Tikri Kalan, Firozpur Kalan, Tadhiann into the shall of Kabilana Ranger out of the district.

The last naddi is the one issuing from under Kot. This is Ladhiapur into the thil of Kabulpur Bangar. nearly as bad as Mangar nald when in flood, and damages the lands of the villages through which it flows when it comes down in heavy rains; it passes through Alampur, Sarohi, Khoi-Jamalpur, Bijupur into the marsh at Sarmatla in Palwal and thence on to the jhill of Khalilpur. Of all of these the most violent are No. 8, the Mangar one,

No. 3 from Badhkhal and No. 9 from Kot in the order named. There is no perennial stream, however; and except in the rainy season the effects are seen only in the undulating character of the ground, here and there cut into more clearly marked channels, the permanent moisture of the lower lands, and in a few villages, a pool of standing. moisture of the fower famus, and in a real value of the cold water which, though in dry seasons it disappears altogether, in the cold unpleasantly flooded between swells into a jult or marsh of considerable size. Sarmatla on the border of Palwal, and Ballabgarh; and duck can be generally shot on the ponds near Gaunchi throughout the winter months. As instanced above the Agra Canal has materially alternated months. As instanced above, the Agra Canal has materially altered weather the road is the drainage of the east half of the Ballabgarh tahsil. now no room for any considerable length of drainage flow on that There is an escape dug from the canal south of Tilpat opposite the place where the water of the Burhiya naddi comes in, and this meanders on in a slimy shor-mixed stream through the low Khadar north of Bhopani on toward Bhaskaula, where it gets a doubtful exit into the river. The want of drainage here is shown in the prevalence of shor, which more or less affects all the land lying in this

Turning to the drainage north of the hills, and beginning at the fur-Turning to the drainage north of the district, the first drainage line that draws notice is the hills.

The short of the Rudhi mala mentioned shows which runs down the channel of the Budhi nald mentioned above, which runs down almost due south, on the east side of the Bangar chak.

This comes down to within a few miles of Dalhi but in the letter part of its down to within a few miles of Delhi, but in the latter part of its course it becomes very serpentine, and hence is called there the Nag It has no clear outlet, but is partly intercepted by the Ganga Toli escape, dug from the canal 13 miles above Delhi chet of motor Tolical Tol sheet of water near Bhalswah Jahangirpur marks the continuation of this channel, which sooner or later it is hoped will be There are outlets for the drainage from the west dug into this channel near Jagdispur and Ladpur below Sunipat; but no outlet exists for the water when it comes there, except a very cleared out again.

Chapter I, A. Descriptive.

Drainage of the canal tract.

and Jharauti with, as may be imagined, a terrible effect; while a fifth, a very important line, runs due south from the two Thánahs by Nizámpur Khurd, Kutabgarh, and passes between the two large villages Ládpur and Kanjháolah with a course to the south-west into Rohtak. A sixth lies south-east of Púth Khurd and goes through Sáhibábád, Daulatpur, Rithálah (a large part of whose lands is simply marsh) and Magholpur Khurd, crossing the Rohtak road about a mile east of Nángloi Jat, and falling into the Najafgarh jhál in the limits of Nángloi Saiyad. These drainage lines are not mere depressions scientifically determined to be such: they are patent to an ordinary observer riding over the ground if he carefully watches the lie of the land, and two things that always are affected by this, the character of the cultivation and condition of the soil. Except the last line the lower part of the channels lies in Rohtak, where they come in at the top of the Najafgarh jhil.

On the other side of the canal the directions of the drainage. flow are perhaps not so clear, but still they may for the most part be made out. One small line goes down between Ahulanah and Atael; another larger one runs south-east from Khúbru through Shekhpurah and Aghwanpur; a third from Dabarpur in the same direction through Máhrá in the Khádar below Shahzádpur. The outlet of these three is clear, or might be made so, into the Budhi nalá mentioned above. But below this there is more difficulty. There is a flow south-east from Juan, but it gets obstructed somewhere about the road where it passes through Barwasni, and but little water passes on to Mailanah, though that seems the natural direction. About Rohat there is almost a basin, and the escape dug nearly due east to Nasírpur Bángar at present does but little good. It appears to be used to take off superfluous canal water rather than for relieving the neighbourhood by drainage. Further down there is a sinuous depression below Katlupur, passing through the north-east lands of Bowanah round by Sanauth into the Gangah Toli escape. This escape was dug possibly to take off the surplus water of the canal, and not for drainage purposes, though its direction is shaped so as partly to serve them. It carries off some water from Sanauth and Razapur Kalan, and then running sharp to the south turns again to the east at the Grand Trunk Road, which it crosses a mile south of Alipur, and thence on in the same direction to Garhí Khusru and the nalá running past Burári.

The Najafgarh jkil,

The western lines, as has been already said, converge on the jhil below Najafgarh. There are two main passages into this: one to the north of Jharaudah and east of Dicháon comes into the low-lands at Nawádah Hashtsal; the other and larger body of drainage comes in between Mandelah Khurd and Bákargarh, running southeast to Pindwála Kalán, and meeting the large jhil below Chhaolah. The main jhil lies to the south-west and west of this, and is fed, as already noted, by the Sáhibi drainage from Gurgáon and the flow of hill water on the west side of the Delhi hills. This last comes down in several places; the most distinct lines perhaps are those lying about Dábri and Pálam.

A more particular account of the Najafgarh jhil considered in its revenue and irrigation aspects will be found in Mr. Maconachie's Settlement Report. It is sufficient to note here that the ar

Chapter I, A. Descriptive.

Reh.

times so strong in its odour as to give the sense of being eaten like food. At this point there is no doubt of the damage. But there is a second stage, reached before the final ruin, wherein the corners of fields look unhealthy; perhaps they have a few stunted stalks on them, perhaps they are quite bare. The middle of the field which has a crop, has also here and there small patches of white or barren soil, telling too clearly of the diminished yield. But the effect of several of these patches, irregular in shape, and scattered in diverse quarters, is to make any estimate of the produce of the field very There is, however, even before the second stage an uncertain. inceptive one, where the devastation has only just begun. Here no shor is apparent on the surface of the soil, but the unhealthy look of the crop, or it may be (as in wheat), a kind of withered precociousness in the ears, shows that things are not as they should be. The fields, to a casual glance, bear their usual variegated burden of yellow and white and green; but the zamindár knows to his cost that the curse has come upon him.

Rainfall, temperature, and climate. Table No. III shows in tenths of an inch the total rainfall

Year.	Tenths of an inch.
1862-63	532
1863-64	855
1864-65	284
1865-66	295

registered at each of the rain-gauge stations in the district for each year, from 1866-67 to 1882-83. The fall at head-quarters for the four preceding years is shown in the margin. The distribution of the rainfall throughout the year is shown in Tables Nos. IIIA and IIIB, while Table No. IV gives details of temperature for each

of the last 14 years, as registered at head-quarters. The average rainfall for the whole district during the 12 years, 1869-1879, is, This is the result of carefully abstracting the monthly returns published in the Punjab Gazette, but it is curious when compared with the larger rainfall in Pánipat, and the larger rainfall on the other side in Gurgáon, which certainly has the reputation of being a thirsty tract as compared with this district. The tahsil. averages do not help in the matter, as Delhi has a larger figure than the others; thus, Sunipat gives 22.7, Delhi 25.5, Ballabgarh 21.3 At pages 12 to 14 will be found an analysis of the annual rainfall for the above 12 years, arranged according as it affects the autumn or the spring harvest, or both. The climate of the district is what might be anticipated from its position, as lying between the plains of the Punjab and those of the more tropical parts of Bengal. The cold weather is much like that of the Punjab, and there is a bleak north-west wind which makes the temperature seem lower than it actually is. On the other hand, the hot weather begins sooner by a good fortnight, though the nominal dates for commenceing and leaving off pankhás are the same as those of Lahore. Tents become unpleasant after April 1, when, if the season is a normal and favourable one, the hot wind buh begins. During the succeeding months, down to the middle or end of June, the west wind should blow moderately and equally. A violent west wind is hurtful to the crops, while an east* wind is unhealthy for

^{*&}quot; If the east wind blow in Jeth, that is bad. If a Jat (mount and) make a horse to dance, that is bad. If a Brahmin take to wearing a knife, that is bad."

Chapter I, A.
Descriptive. Rainfall, temperature, and climate.

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Chapter I, A. Descriptive:

Rainfall, tempera-ture, and climate.

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Geology, Fauna and Flora.

Chapter I, B. bly those where the debilitating disease assumed its most prominent While drawing a sad picture of the state of the people, he alludes to the improved drainage of the Najafgarh tract, and shows that, while in 1845 the splenic enlargements were 43 per cent., in. 1867 they were only 5.37. The flood level had sunk three feet,

Alleged evil effects of canal water.

and the aspect of the people was healthy and robust. Besides fever, the zamindárs of the canal villages complain that copious irrigation of the land brings with it, though they do not On this point information is of course very doubtful: the earliest report on the matter, that of Mr. Sherer (Selections from the Records of the Government of India in know how, impotence in the men. the Public Works Department No. XIII) expressed the same opinion. "The unfruitfulness of women in canal villages is a subject of "common remark, and the consequent difficulty of inducing other Jak "families to give their daughters to the men of Panipat, and the "iamines to give their daughters to the men of Lampat, and that "environs of the canals generally, is very great." Dr. Taylor heard that sexual incapacity existed greatly among men, but that women were not barren in the same proportion. The local belief is the same; and it is said in addition that the women are generally more healthy Two reasons are given—the women come from other villages—often villages not irrigating from the canal, and so have a healthier stock to begin with. Secondly, they work more This sounds strange, and is only half true; but there, is no doubt that the women in the canal villages look less lazy and than the men. demoralized than the men, who are indeed a very degenerate race.

SECTION B.—GEOLOGY, FAUNA, AND FLORA.

cology.

Our knowledge of Indian geology is as yet so general in its nature, and so little has been done in the Punjab in the way of detailed replaced investigation that it is impossible to discuss the detailed geological investigation, that it is impossible to discuss the local geology of separate districts. But a sketch of the geology of the province as a whole has been most kindly furnished by Mr. Medligett Superintendent of the Goological Suprem Medicott, Superintendent of the Geological Survey of India, and is published in extenso in the provincial volume of the Gazetteer The mines of the district are thus returned in the Administra-

Mines and minerals.

tion Report:—Chalk mines at Kasumpur and Arangpur, the former series, and also as a separate pamphlet. leased by the villagers for Rs. 300 a year, the latter not worked at reased by the villagers for his. Down a year, the latter how young 933,000 various villages, yielding 933,000 various villages, process of Ringkanli maunds annually, worth some Rs. 8,000; bajri mines at Binskauli and Raisingh righting annually 1 000 maunds worth Re 950. nine maunas annually, worth some as 0,000; out names at Dalling annually 1,000 maunds, worth Rs. 250; nine and Raisinah, yielding annually 1,000 mounds worth Rs. 1 265; a crystal mine stone mines yielding 4,950 maunds, worth Rs. 1,265; a crystal mine at Arangour not worked at present The quantities here stated are probably unreliable. The noticeable minerals therefore of the district, providing unreadure in a stone, crystal, kankar and chalk; though it is so far as known, are stone, crystal, kankar and chalk; though it is so far as known, are stone, crystal, kankar and chalk; though it is so id the crief of the hills readers the existence of the hills. at Arangpur, not worked at present. said the quartz-like formation of the hills* renders the existence of

mctamorphism."

^{*} Their scientific description is given as follows:— bedding, and the associated of the ridges, indicate advanced of A core of quartzite with more or less vertical bedding, and the associated the ridges, indicate advanced as as far as they are exposed on the flanks of the ridges, indicate advanced as far as they are exposed on the flanks of the ridges. "A core of quartzite with more or less vertical bedding, and the associated with more or less vertical bedding, and the associated the ridges indicate advanced rocks as far as they are exposed on the flanks of the ridges, indicate advanced metamorphism."

Thapter I, B. eology, Fauna, and Flora. Chalk

Chalk is either worked, or known to exist in Kasumpur Mahrauli, Malikpur Kohí, and Arangpur. It is dug out of a rude mine made by sinking a shaft 30 or 40 feet deep, and five or mine made by shiking a shall ou or to help and nice or six feet in diameter, and then making tunnels in all directions in diameter, and then making tunnels in all directions in diameter, and then making tunnels in all directions in all directions in the six feet in diameter, and then blocks (dalld or dlift), that horizontally at the bottom. The blocks (dalld or dlift) are turned out whole, are sold on the spot; the smaller pieces are turned out whole, are sold on the spot; the washed and there washed and there washed and there washed and there washed and the making tunnels in all directions. .18 (tilvyá) are taken to the Malchah village, and there washed and dried, and then sold for whitening. The local idea makes stone true, and then sold for whitening. fuse into chalk by a kind of subterranean ignition. The product is of some value: in the village of Kasúmpur, the lease of the chalk mines has for some years past brought in an income of over Rs. 300, nines has for some years past brought in an income of washing, and on the average. The expenses of excavation, carriage, Rs. 15-6 per making up into cakes for market sale, are estimated at Rs. 15-6 per 100 mounds the backs price of which is about Rs 20* 100 maunds, the básár price of which is about Rs. 30.* Salt is not now made anywhere in the Delhi district, though

Salt.

Paltpetre.

Trees.

it used to be in certain Khadar villages, where the marks of the Saltpetre is occasionally made earth-peds (sar) are sum evident. Dampetre is occasionally been in different parts. During the last ten years 30 licenses have been earth-beds (sar) are still evident. Coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil, the district is not coming to vegetable products of the soil of the so

well wooded throughout, but in many parts the trees are abundant enough to give a pleasant variety to the landscape, or enough to give a pleasant representation of the country from an elevated snot. given for this purpose in 15 villages. bird's-eye view of the country from an elevated spot gives an effect not unlike that of an English park. In other parts, particularly not unlike that of an english park. Noisfrorh and in the inferior in the hills, in the marshy lands near Najafgarh, and in the inferior parts of the Khádar, trees are scarce, and there is nothing to relieve. the monotony of the prospect. Along the Western Jamna plantate fine avenues of shisham have sprung up on the banks of the tions of kikar and shisham have sprung up on the banks of the tions of kikar and shisham have sprung up on the banks of the tions of kikar and shisham have sprung up on the banks of the tions of kikar and shisham have sprung up on the banks of the tions of kikar and shisham have sprung up on the banks of the tions of kikar and shisham have sprung up on the banks of the tions of kikar and shisham have sprung up on the banks of the tions of kikar and shisham have sprung up on the banks of the tions of kikar and shisham the tions of kikar and the tio tions of kikar and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of the hard and shisham have spring up on the banks of The Mathrah road is not well shaded, nor, except (Acacia Arabica) In uncultivated lands these are specially found. In Sunipat, for instance, the hot commonest trees are the well-known and jal (Panjabi pilu or van Salvadora oleoides). names these are specially found. In Sumpat, for instance, there hot woody stretches of the jal extending for miles, and in the lost woody stretches of the jal extending been poor, hundreds, almost weather, especially if the rabi crop has been poor, seen feeding and thousands of the more destitute classes are to be seen feeding thousands. Agra Canal. thousands, of the more destitute classes are to be seen (Figus relitations by turns in the stunted groves. (Azadárarachta Indica). Indica) farásh (Tamaria Indica) giosa), fardsh (Tamaria (Molin commercial andica), Indica), for (Figure Indica) guesa), Jurash (Lamarus Thunca), with (Azauratuchia Thunca), from (Melia sempervirens), dhák (Butea from (Melia sempervirens), and found in many dosa) and hér (Zizamhais inimha) are indicanous and found in many (Figure 1ndica), bakarn (Mena sempervirens), anak (Butta many and found in Mena sempervirens), anak (Butta many and found in Mena are indigenous and found in Acacia (Capparis aphylla), kluir (Acacia (Capparis aphylla), kluir (Balanites Annotiaca), and himaot (Balanites Annotiaca), and himaot (Balanites aphylla) ident (Seshamia, Annotiaca), and himaot (Balanites aphylla) places, as also the business Kurt (Jappurts appropriate), Educates Egyptiaca), and hingot (Balanites Egyptiaca), int (Sesbania Egyptiaca), and oimic are indicated in tiaca.) It is doubtful whether shisham and siris are indigenous in

^{*} The zamindars do not dig the chalk themselves; they lease the right to strangers, Cooly labour at this work erally men of low caste, living in the neighbourhood. and 2 or only 15 annals appears for the dioper working down below, and 2 or only 15 annals appears for the dioper working down below. * The zamindars do not dig the chalk themselves; they lease the right to strangers, work generally men of low caste, living in the neighbourhood. Cooly labour at this anna fetchs 21 annas per diem for the digger working down below, and 2 or only 12 for the lighter work on the surface. tiaca.)

[†] These are:

Sunipat—Rámpur, Kundal, Pináná, Nizampur.

Sunipat—Rámpur, Malakpárzer, Najhfgarh. Kar.

Delhi—Dindhása, Malakpárzer, Najhfgarh.

Delhi—Bhopáni, Jaik alias Unchágáon,

Delhi—Bhopáni, Jaik alias Biloch.

Ballabgarh—Bhopáni, Fatehour Biloch.

Ballabgarh—Aghwánnur. Fatehour for the lighter work on the surface. pánda, Aghwánpur, Fatehpur Biloch.

CHAP. I.—THE DISTRICT.

Geology, Fauna, and Flora. Special plants. Rs. 2 a bigha, or on condition of letting the families of the proprietors take a portion of the crop from time to time as they need it for food. The singhára in some villages is a valuable source of water-income (jalkar) to the community.

(2.) 'Iháú (panj-pilchi—Tamarix dioica) is found chiefly in Khádar uncultivated land, especially in the belás of the river. It grows sometimes seven or eight feet high, but on the average reaches only to a man's waist and answers to many uses with the zamín-dár—either as fuel, or made up into baskets or rustic brooms (wherewith to sweep his threshing floor), or lining the sides of a kachá well. The baskets are made by Kahárs, who pay I anna per day for the right of cutting as much of the bush as they can carry away in their banghy. The actual cash income therefore is not much, except on lands near the city, but the agriculturist looks on it as of considerable use.

(3.) Sarkandá (Saccharum procerum) is a reed that grows to a height of 10 or 12 feet; it is found in alluvial marshes, but also on the side of the canal, and sometimes of its distributaries. It must have moisture, and is fond of mud. Some villages, such as Jákhauli, Tehri, Daulatpur, and Burari, make very considerable sums of money by the sale of this reed. It is used for the roofing of thatched buildings, and for the reed-chair which is so much in fashion among natives. Its price is measured by sheaves, each tied up with a rope made of the leaves, two and a half cubits long. Such a sheaf is called bind and is worth about an anna.

(4.) Pála (Zizyphus nummularia) is a small thorny bush-weed which grows pretty well all over the district, but chiefly in poor lands, and especially on the ridge-like tract of land in Delhi tahsíl, near Nangloi Ját, and Bakarwála. In Sunípat it favours Lälherí and Rajlú, and that sandy neighbourhood, while in the hills it grows extensively. In the Ballabgarh Bángar, too, there is a great deal. This uninviting plant gives a very useful food for buffaloes, cows and goats. Camels and goats indeed like it better than any thing almost. It is considered heating, and so is good for the cold weather.

It is cut twice in the year (in Kátik and Chet) with a gandasi,

and is sold at 3, 4, or 5 maunds the rupee.

The following note on the wild animals of the district has

"Pig abound all along the banks of the Jamná, being found in the jháú jungle where there are no crops, and in the latter when they are high enough to afford cover. Foxes and hares are plentiful on the eastern bank of the Jamná, but do not seem to inhabit the western bank to the same extent. Black buck are found almost everywhere. Chikára abound in the range of hills which runs north-east of Delhi, being especially numerous at Bhunsi, Sinah, and the part of the Ridge in this neighbourhood. Wolves are not plentiful, but they are to be usually found in the neighbourhood of the old cantonment, especially during the time soldiers are there encamped, at which time, I have seen them in numbers quite close to my tent. Jackals abound. Hares are found generally throughout the district. Peafowl are plentiful. Duck and snipe are plentiful in ordinary years, but in dry years they are scarce. The nilgai is to be con-

Wild animals.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORY.

Chapter II.

History.
Early History.

The history of the Delhi district, previous to British rule, is the history of the city of Delhi, which has from the time of its first foundation been the seat of the ruling dynasty, Rájpút, Pathán, Mughal or Mahratta. To write it in full would be to recite the history of Northern India. A brief outline of the principal events which have affected the fortunes of the city itself, with especial reference to the architectural remains which are there to be found, is given in Chapter VI; but no attempt will be made to furnish any more detailed narrative of the historical events which preceded the introduction of British rule.

Administrative arrangements in 1803.

On the 11th September, 1803, the Mahrattas were defeated in the battle on the Hindan by General Lake; and three days afterwards the English entered Delhi as the real masters of the Mughai Empire. The tract then added to the territories of the East India Company included a considerable strip of country to the west of the river Jamna, north and south of Delhi. It was determined to assign a large portion of the territory thus acquired to King Shah Alam and his descendants, in order to provide for the maintenance and dignity of the Royal family. The arrangements to be made were thus described in a despatch by Lord Wellesley, dated Fort William, 2nd January 1805:—

"The Governor-General in Council has determined to adopt an arrangement upon the basis of the following provisions :- That a specifical portion of the territories in the vicinity of Delhi, situated on the Egibank of the Jamna, should be assigned in part of the provision for the maintenance of the Royal family. That those lands should remain under charge of the Resident of Delhi, and that the revenue should be collected and justice should be administered in the name of His Majesty Shah Alam, under Regulations to be fixed by the British Government. That His Majesty should be permitted to appoint a Divariant cale. inierior officers to attend at the office of the Collector, for the purpose of ascertaining and reporting to His Majesty the amount of the revenues which should be received, and the charges of collection, and of satisfying His Majesty's mind that no part of the produce of the assigned territor, was misappropriated. That two Cours of justice should be established for the administration of civil and criminal justice, according to the Mahammadan law, to the inhabitants of the city of Delhi, and of the assigned territory. That no sentences of the Criminal Couris extending to death should be carried into execution without the express sanction of His Majesty. to whom the proceedings in all trials of this description should be reported, and that sentences of mutilation should be commuted. That to provide for the immediate wants of His Majesty and the Royal household, the following sums should be paid monthly in money from the Treasury of the

Chapter II.
History.

Administrative arrangements in 1803.

when by Regulation V of that year, the office of Resident and Chief Commissioner was abolished. The affairs of the Delhi territory were to be administered in future by a Commissioner in correspondence with the Government of the North-West Provinces, the powers heretofore exercised by the Resident as Chief Commissioner being vested in the Board of Revenue and the High (Sadr) Court at Agra. By the same Act it was laid down that the Commissioner of Delhi territory and his subordinates should in their administration conform to the principles and spirit of the Regulations. This enactment put an end to the anomalous system of administration above described; and henceforth, in name as well as in actual fact, the administration passed into the hands of the East India Company. The Delhi territory continued to form a part of the territory under the Government of the N. W. Provinces till 1858, when after the reconquest of Delhi from the Sepoy mutineers, it was annexed to the newly formed Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab.

Successive Residents.

The first Resident of the Delhi territory was Sir David Ochterlony,* who was in charge from 1803—1806. He had not been a year in office before the city was besieged by Holkar, whose large and well-appointed army was, as is well-known, successfully beaten off by a handful of Europeans and natives under the gallant leadership of their soldier-governor, until Lord Lake returned. General Ochterlony's bravery, however, was more acceptable to Government than his civil administration, and in 1806 he was removed to Ludhiánah, then a frontier station. His successor, Mr. R. G. Seton from Bareilly, was a man of high character and amiable temperament, but wanting in self-confidence, and in practical energy of decision. He leaned much on a stronger man than himself, Charles Metcalfe, who on Seton's departure for Europe in 1810 was appointed to the important post of Delhi Resident. For nine years he remained in it, developing that administrative experience and vigorous practical wisdom which afterwards placed him so high on the roll of Indian names. As a mere boy he had in 1809 confronted and successfully treated with the great Ruler of the Sikhs, and the early charge of the Delhi Residency was the immediate reward of his brilliantly self-reliant management of the treaty of the Satlaj—"one of the best kept treaties of Indian History." In December 1818 he entered the troubled period of his life by transfer to Haidarábád as Resident, and Ochterlony returned for two years with Henry Middleton as Collector. In 1821 Ochterlony went to Rájputáná, and, after an acting charge by Middleton, Alexander Ross was appointed in 1822 to the administration as Agent to the Governor-General. In 1823 William Fraser acted as Agent, and then Charles Elliot succeeded for a few months when he went as Agent to Farukhábád, and Charles Metcalfe came back again as Resident with control of Rajputána,

His name by a characteristic metathesis is known among the natives as Loni akhtar.

Chapter II.

History.

Constitution of the district,

It was only transferred to Delhi in 1861. The present arrangement of the tahsils dates from 1862. At some time between 1848 and 1853, a considerable tract to the east of the Jamná, including (by the Census of 1853) 160 villages and an area of 193 square miles, was added to the Delhi district from the districts of Mirath and Bulandshahr. This, under the name of the "Eastern pargana," continued to form part of the Delhi district until the Mutiny and the transfer of the Delhi territory to the Punjab. The immediate charge of what is now the Delhi district was held first by a Principal Assistant, and subsequently by a Collector under the Resident and Civil Commissioner. The first distribution of the Delhi territory was into divisions, an Assistant being entrusted with the charge of a division. At this time Sunipat formed part of the Northern Division with head-quarters at Pánipat, while Delhi and part of Ballabgarh formed the central division. Gurgáon and Rohtak and the parts round these made up the southern and western divisions. In 1820 the Civil Commissionership was abolished or changed for a Deputy Superintendent on Rs. 3,000 a month, whose duties were primarily revenue; and about the same time Delhi was put under the Board of Revenue, North-West Provinces.

Tahsii arrangements.

The arrangements as to tahsils appear to have been as follows:-As regards Sunipat there were at first two talists, both having their head-quarters at the town; then another, a small one, with a very poorly paid tahsildar, was made up at Ganaur. This was the state of things in 1835, when (1) Sunipat Bángar had a tahsildár drawing Rs. 50 a month and the revenue was Rs. 2,13,040; (2) Sunipat Khádar, a tahsíldár on Rs. 50 and revenue Rs. 70,999; (3) Ganaur, a tahsildár on Rs. 30 and revenue Rs. 67,444. It is not clear whether this revenue includes jágír or not. In 1836 the Ganaur talisíl was incorporated with the Sunipat Khádar, and the talisíldár's pay was revised as follows:, talisíldár Bangar, Rs. 175; talisíldár Khádar, Rs. 125. This administration continued till 1851, when the two Pánípat tahsíls were made one, and the same amalgamation took place in Sunipat, the one tahsil being called Larsauli. Larsauli then remained, with its 205 villages, in Karnál district till 1857, when it was transferred to Delhi. For Delhi the head-quarters were at first in the city, then at Najafgarh; then there were two talisils, one at Mahrauli and one at Bawanah. The Bawanah talisil was moved to Alipur, and after the Mutiny to Delhi. Mahrauli was given up and its villages divided between Delhi and Ballabgarh. This last, in addition to the villages thus gained, included the raj villages, and those of parganah Pálí-Pákal.

In May 1868, twenty villages, with a population of 6,990, were transferred from Gurgáon to the Ballabgarh talisíl. In August 1868 six villages, with a population of 5,841, were transferred from Rohtak to Sunipat. At the commencement of Settlement operations in 1872, the distribution of villages among the three tulisíls was as

Chapter II.

History.
State of Delhi district during the Mutiny.

orders, on the numerous petitions presented, but the real power was in the hands of the soldiers. Complaints, are not long wanting of their violence and unruliness; the bania is indignant at the summary appropriation of his goods going on, and compares the present administration unfavourably with that of the Káfirs, who, however wretched they were in religion, respected the rights of property. The zamindárs of some village outside, having attacked and been beaten off by their neighbours with whom they have had a long standing grudge, write in fulsome terms congratulating the king on the massacre of the hateful English, portesting their fervent loyalty, and praying for punishment on their temporarily successful rivals. The king writes. "Let the Mirza see to this," and a foraging party soon after visits both villages, to the gain probably of neither. Grain carts coming into the city are not unfrequently seized by regiments on their own account, and when enquiry is made they protest they must do something of the kind as they do not get their pay. This last fact is one which, as time goes on, assumes an uncomfortable prominence, and makes it necessary for the imperial dignity to stoop to such unpopular exactions as a com-This, it need hardly be said, is followed by more compulsory loan. plaints from the bania, who in return gets threatened with bodily penalties; and so matters go on; the mutineers are scarcely loyal to the 'emperor'; they quarrel among themselves for the best quarters, get little or no regular pay, but recoup themselves by plundering any person who seems weak enough to invite it and wealthy enough to be worth it. As regards matters outside, the Rájá of Ballabgarh trims to secure himself on both sides, but is hoplessly convicted of collusion with the king by letters under his own seal protesting his respectful loyalty to the Muhammadan, and his joy at the defeat of the English—so much so that a man he had in his own service belonging to the detested race he will not retain any longer near him.' The Nawab of Jhajjar is as bad or worse, and the zamindárs throughout the district fall into lawless habits of attacking their neighbours and plundering travellers.

Noble exceptions to the general disloyalty.

Yet there are bright exceptions of men who, moved by loyalty to our government, or pity for individuals, did good service in the way of protecting and concealing fugitive Europeans and helping them on their way to safe places. A list of rewards given for such work will be found in the Settlement Report; but a few are worthy of special mention. The most illustrious instance of hardly-tried loyalty in the district perhaps was that of Hidáyat Ali, a risáldar in the native army, on leave at the time of the outbreak. This gallant fellow* took in, fed, quartered, and for more than a week pro-

^{*} The account locally given of the first appearance of the Collector of Gurgáon, and other persons of consequence, as fugitives is very graphic, and has no doubt had some picturesqueness added to it during the lapse of the twenty years since the occurrence of the facts on which it is founded. It begins somewhat in this fashion:—

[&]quot;It was just about noon and the Risáldár Sáhib was taking a nap, when one of his men came and woke him saying—"there is a gora standing at some distance from the village under a tree, his head bare, and his clothes dirty, and he has a stick in his hand, and he makes signs." The Risáldár Sáhib got up at once and went out and found that this was a scout sent out by the fugitive party to see if they might come into the village, &c., &c.

Chapter II.

History.

General disaffection and its punishment.

burnt the civil station, and the hill Gujars broke out thieving, plundering, and, wherever they could, burning Government property. For a time disorder was rampant. But it was very short-lived; all the north part of the district was overawed by the presence of the camp on 'the Ridge,' and supplies were obtained through friendly zamindars without much difficulty. Nothing is more surprising in a small way, among the big events of that time, than the ease and rapidity with which things were settled again after the fall of Delhi. The revenue due in June 1857 was partially collected, and that due in December in full. This re-establishment of order, it may be imagined, was not effected without sharp measures. The special commission appointed for the summary punishment of offenders convicted 2,025 persons, acquitting 1,281. Of the convicts, 392 were hanged, 57 were sentenced to life imprisonment. and many more to imprisonment for shorter terms. Nor can these figures be thought to show all the punishment inflicted. The official report itself says: "It is difficult to analyse all that may have been done during that period of excitement." And there is no doubt that, though hardly anything could be too severe a retribution for the diabolical acts of cruelty that we read of, or hear of, as having been perpetrated by the mutineers and their sympathisers, the Delhi district received a lesson which will never be forgotten.* As was officially said "the agrestic population had been taught to know their masters," while the city retained only one-fourth of its former population. The king himself was tried by a special commission in his own Hall of Audience, and was convicted of rebellion against the British Government, and of being accessory to "the slaughter of 49 Christians, chiefly women and children, within his palace-walls." In January 1858 a general disarming of the people took place; penal fines were levied from offending villages; and the political punishment was pronounced of transfer to the Panjab. By Act XXXVIII of 1858 the imperial city was annexed as a provincial town to the frontier province, and the firm hands of the Chief Commissioner assumed charge of the Delhi territory, which he had done so much to reconquer from the mutineers. The civil Courts re-opened in July 1858.

Famin≊.

A note of past years of scarcity may conveniently be made here. These, as known by tradition, or reported by different authorities, are the years A.D. 1345, 1631, 1661, 1739, 1770, 1783-S4, 1803-4, 1813-14, 1819, 1825-26, 1827-28, 1832-34, 1837-38, 1860-61, 1865, 1868, and 1877. Of these the worst are said to havebeen 1783-84, 1803-4, 1837-38, and 1860-61. Perhaps this is said because there

^{*} It is not a common thing perhaps to meet a man shot for mutiny in 1857. Yet there is, or till very lately was, one in the village of Khor Panjáb, in the Delhi Bángar. The villagers had sent a khidmatgár of Sir J. Metcalfe's, who came to them for concealment, into Delhi to be given up to the king. This was base no doubt, and so thought the English authorities. There is a spot pointed out where 20 or 21 of the zamindárs were stood up in a line and shot down one after another. Our friend was shot in his turn and tumbled down, no doubt thinking himself dead. Yet after the departure of the executioners he found he was only badly wounded, and managed to recover and live these many years.

1882

1882

1893

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1883

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Still in charge.

Name.

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Chapter II.

District officers since annexation.

History. Mr. G. Kuox
Mr. A. H. Beuton
Major R. T. M. Lang
Mr. G. Knox
Major C. A. MacMahon]
Mr. W. M. Young
Lt. Colonel R. Young
Major Jas. Tighe
Mr. J. Frizelle
Mr. J. Frizelle
Mr. T. W. Smyth
Mr. D. G. Barkley
Mr. G. G. Bryth
Mr. G. Smyth
2nd June 1871 29th February 26th March 27th May 10th December 22nd February 1st March 27th March 1873 1872 1872 1872 ... 28th May 11th December 1873 1873 ••• 1873 1873 23rd February 12th March 16th June 11th March 1873 1873 15th June 15th January 15th November 5th May 1873 1873 1874 1873 16th January 14th November 1874 1874 1874 1876 6th May 1875 13th May 1876 14th May 20th August 19th August 30th September 31st August 30th September 1875 1876 400 *** 1875 1675 44. 1st October 1875 1876 ••• ... 1st Reptember 1876 1876 ... 1st October 14th August 14th October 1876 1877 1st October 15th August 15th October 16th April 23rd April 14th August 12th November 1877 1877 15th April 22nd April 18th August 1877 1878 1878 1878 1878 1878 ••• Lt Colouel F. M. Birch
Mr. G. Smyth
Mr. J. R. Maconschie
Mr. G. Smyth
Mr. T. W. Smyth
Mr. T. W. Smyth
Mr. J. R. Drummond
Mr. T. W. Smyth
Mr. A. W. Stogdon
Mr. T. Troward
Mr. T. W. Smyth
Mr. G. Smyth
Mr. G. Smyth
Mr. J. W. Stogdon
Mr. T. Troward
Mr. T. W. Smyth
Mr. G. Smyth
Mr. G. Smyth
Mr. J. W. Gardiner
Mr. G. Smyth
11th November 1878 1878 ••• 1878 1st September 29th September 14th November 1879 2nd September 1879 1879 ... ** 30th September 15th November 1st February 1880 1879 Sist January 1883 1880 31st January 23rd March 18th April 20th April 17th July 6th October 17th December 6th April 9th Ootober 17th October 17th November 8till in charre. 1882 1833 24th Blarch 19th April 21st April 18th July 1892 1883 ... *** 1882 1882 •••

7th October

18th December 7th April 10th October 18th October 10th November

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 Statistical. Distribution of population.

Chapter III, A. most retired hamlet; and where there seems a comparative want of such a market, it will generally be found that the average size of the villages themselves is very comfortable. In the point of distribution of numbers then the district is fairly well-off, though, as might be expected, the thickest swarm of human beings is found in the carefully cultivated plains of the Khadar riverain, or in the still productive lands of the canal villages. The population of the hills is naturally sparse.

Migration and birth-

Table No. VI shows the principal districts and states with place of population, which the district has exchanged population, the number of emigrants in each direction, and the distribution of immigrants by tahsils. Further details will be found in Table XI, and in supplementary Tables C to H of the Census Report for 1881, while the whole subject is discussed at length in Part II of Chapter

Proporti	ion p popu	er mille o lation.	f total
		Gain,	Loss.
Persons Males Females	***	232 177 295	171 127 222

III of the same Report. The total gain and loss to the district by migration is shown in the margin. The total number of residents born out of the district is 149,666, of whom 61,037 are males and 88,629 females. The number of people born in the district and living in other parts of the Panjab is 109,992, of whom

43,643 are males and 66,349 females. The figures below show the general distribution of the population by birthplace:-

Bosz iz		P	BOPORT	ioz pe	e Will	BOF R	esiden	r popi	LATIO	5.
		RUBAL POPULATION			URBAN POPULATION,			Total Population.		
		Males.	Females	Persons	Males.	Females	Persons	Males.	Pemales	Persons.
The District The Province India Asia	*** *** *** ***	876 945 1,000 1,000	691 691 1,000 1,000	789 970 1,000 1,000	713 895 997 993	734 820 953 993	723 813 929 929	824 972 993 999	7/5 853 1,0/0 1,000	76! 895 693 893

The following remarks on the migration to and from Dehli are taken from the Census Report:-

"The amount of immigration is exceedingly large in proportion to the population. The attractions exercised by a great centre of commerce swells its amount, but the low percentage of males, and the fact that the proportion of people born in the district, and even in the Panjab, is smaller among females than among males, show how largely the migration, at any rate between Delhi and the districts and provinces which border on it, is reciprocal. The percentage of males is highest in Hissar, Ambalah, Lahore and the Native States, none of which march with Delhi. It is also high among the immigrants from Rájpútana, which would seem to show that some of them had been driven to the river banks by scarcity of water and grass, or were perhaps engaged on the works of the new canal. Males are more numerous among immigrants than among emigrants, the immigration to a large urban centre always showing an excess of males. The excess emigration to Lahore and Ambalah is probably due to the attractions exercised by the provincial capital and the cantonments. Among the districts with which

Chapter III, A.

Statistical. Increase and decrease of population. individual towns at the respective enumerations are shown under

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*Total district		COTES CCO	for the	the
10.00	621,5%	et 01	PPELETETE	nie.

*These figures do not agree with the published figures of the Census Report of 1853 for the whole district. They are taken from the registers in the District Office, and are the best figures now available.

Within the district the increase of population since 1868 for the various taheile is shown in the margin.

Mr. Maconachie in his Settlement Report gives the following interesting figures for the separate tracts included in the district.

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Increase in raral population comparatively Mortality on the W. J. Canal. small.

mites as follows regarding the increase and decrease of popularies "The total increase in the rural population is less than one that th

which contrasts uniavourably with the rate of increase in the companion where it is as high as 10.1 per cant. population, where it is as high as 10.4 per cent. lation:

"The decrease in the rural w. J. Canal and to defective drains. in buted to the presence of there is little or no canal irrigation. in Rallahvarh tahail. where there is buted to the presence of the W. J. Canal and to detective arranges.

In Ballabgarh tahsil, where there is little or no canal irrigation, inc.

In Ballabgarh tahsil, by 8.5 per cent., while in Delhi, where the canal population has increased by 8.5 per cent., the normalism is stationary, the normal a portion only of the tahsil. population nas increased by 500 per cent., while in Deini, where the stationari, the population is stationari, the population only of the taken hains probable belonced by the increase in the more healths treate being probable belonced by the increase in the more healths. runs through a portion only of the tahtil, the population is stationary, the increase in the more healthy tracts being probably balanced by the the increase in the tract traversed by the canal. In the Sunipat tahtil its decrease in the tract traversed by the tahtil from north to south the canal runs through the entire length of the tahtil from north to south decrease in the tract traversed by the canal. In the Sumpat takill is canal runs through the entire length of the takil from north to Sunitate canal runs through the entire length of While the decrease in the Sunitate canal runs through the entire length of the takil the decrease in the Sunitate with the takil sum of takil sum and there its enect is much marked. In the the decrease in the subject in fillegs.

taksil generally amounts to 49 per cent, it is much higher in rarked.

to these the decrease is very marked. takel generally amounts to 4.9 per cent, it is much higher in villages bordering on the canal. In some of these the decrease is very markely are for instance in the toble of the top of northern

"With the view of ascertaining the effect of the W. J. Caral of With the view of ascertaining the effect of the W. J. Caral of With the view of ascertaining the effect of the W. J. Caral of the W. J. Car onnering on the canal at the top of next page. "With the view of ascertaining the effect of the W. J. Canal of 25 villages in the health of persons bordering on the canal was taken in 1877. The the Sunipat talist bordering on the canal was taken in 1877.

Special Census in Canal Villages.

Chapter III, A. Statistical.

Special Census in Canal Villages. ance for the transfer of villages and the changes of boundaries, there has been an increase of 32,946 acres or of 6.7 per cent. in the cultivated area; the increase is largest in the Ballabgarh tahsil."

On the same subject Mr. Maconachie writes thus in 1880:

"The latest figures for the district generally are those of 1868; but for 21 canal villages in Sunipat, a Census was taken in 1877. Its object was primarily for sanitary statistics, but the figures are useful as showing what the canal, when misused, can do in the way of destroying human life. Their force cannot be properly understood unless they are compared so far as they may be with the population statistics of the tahsil, which have just been given, and show a very large increase of population indeed. There is no reason whatever to suppose that since 1868 the general condition of the tahsil will be found to have stopped increase of population altogether, though the rate of increase may have been retarded. But look at the facts in these canal villages: there is an absolute decrease of population: this decrease in such parts is quite as significant as is the general increase in the tahsil taken as a whole; the figures are these:—

		¥	EAR.			Total popu- lation.	Agriculturists.	Non-agri culturists
1842	•••	***	•••	•••		18.118	10,376	7,74
1854	•••	·	***	***	•••	20,437	11.690	8,74
Per cen	t. increas	on popu	lation of li	842 since 18	342	12:79	12.66	12-9
1868	***		•••	•••		26,941	13,898	13,04
Per cent	t. increase	on popul	ation of 18	42 since 18	54	36.89	21.28	55-49
1877	•••	***	•••	•••		25,769	13,388	12,39
Per con	t. increas	e on popu	lation of 1	842 since T	868	6.46	4.92	8-50
Cotal pe 1842	er cent.	increase o	n populati	on of 1849	since	42:22	29-02	59-91

Births and deaths.

Table No. XI shows the total number of births and deaths

			1880.	1881.
Males Females Persons	111 444 644	::: :::	17 14 31	26 23 48

registered in the district for the five years from 1877 to 1881, and the births for 1880 and 1881, the only two years during which births have been record-

tribution of the total deaths, and of the deaths from fever for these five years over the twelve months of the year is shown in Tables Nos. XIA and XIB. The annual birth rates per mille, calculated on the population of 1868, are as shown in the margin.

The figures below show the annual death rates per mille

since 1868, calculated on the population of that year:

			1865	1669	1870	1871	1872	1873	1874	1875	1676	1677	1876	1879	1850	1691	Average
Males Females Persons	***	ga.	19 20 20	31 30 30	31 30 31	30 25 29	32 33 32	35 36 36	29 30 30	30 30 30	23 24 24	27 26 26	55 58 55	กหา	35 32 34	28 37 38	25 25 35

Chapter III, Al

Statistical.
Infanticide.

between the ages of 9 and 15. If the parents are in good circumstances their children are married at even earlier ages than the above. The ceremony of betrothal precedes the marriage by two or three years. The age of marriage is considerably later among Muhammadans.

"Rajputs and Gújars among Muhammadans.

"Rajputs and Gújars among Hindus, and Meos and Patháns among Muhammadans, were formerly suspected of practising female infanticide, but it is believed that this crime has now ceased to exist. There is not much to say as to the treatment of female children. They are not, as a rule, illtreated, but they do not receive the same care and attention as sons, especially among Hindus. Muhammadans treat their daughters with the same care as their sons. Up to 5 years of age the disproportion between the numbers of the sexes is not so great as at a later age. The disproportion increases as the age increases, and it is possible that this is due to greater mortality among the females, either as the result of neglect or of disease. Females being naturally weaker than males are less able to resist the ailments of childhood, and they die in greater numbers.

Disparity of the sexes.

"The majority of the Sikh and Christian population in this district are on service in the British or Native Regiments stationed at Delhi, and this explains the great disparity of the sexes in these two divisions, as a comparatively small proportion of the soldiers are married or have their families with them. Among Muhammadans the proportion of females is larger than among Hindus. To every 100 Muhammadan males there are 92.2 females; whereas there are only 85.5 females to every 100 Hindu males. Comparing the chief of Muhammadan tribes the one with the other the results are:—

				Males.	Females.
Pathans		•••	***	100	92.8
Sheikhs	•••	•••	•••	100	93.3
Syads	***	***	•••	100.	998
Mughals	***	•••	***	100	101.1

"In three other sub-divisions of Muhammadans the proportion of females is even larger; thus:—

		Males.	L'emaies.
Bilochis	•••	100	103.4
Kassábs	***	100	105.4 "
Mirásis	•••	100	103-2

"The exceptionally high proportion of females in these three classes is more apparent than real, and is probably due to the occupation of the men, which necessitates their absence from home for long periods at a time, Mirásis earn their livelihood chiefly by begging from village to village. Bilochis are largely employed as camel drivers, and Kassábs are chiefly engaged in trading in cattle and grain. Among Hindús, the only class in which there is an approach to equality between males and females is Saráogis. Among these the proportion of males to females is as 52-28 to 47.72, that is, for every 100 male Saráogis there are 91.2 females; but in the towns of Delhi and Sunípat this proportion is exceeded. In these the proportions are:—

					Males.	Females.
Delhi	***	•••	-	***	100	93
Suninat		• • • •			100	103

Causes of disparity of sexes.

"Two causes may be assigned for the differences in the proportion of females to males among Hindus and Muhammadans respectively: 1st, that more females than males are born to Muhammadans than to Hindus; and 2ndly, that a higher rate of mortality obtains among Hindu females owing (a) to their being less carefully reared in childhood than males, and (b) owing to the system of early marriages. Thus the proportion of girls

Chapter III, B. Social Life.

The village.

The season, if it has been a fairly favourable one, has started the rabi crops with a decently heavy winter rain (mahawat), about the end of December; but, since then there has been fair weather, with a bright sun, and gentle west wind, and the first watering (korwa) has done its work, and brought on the crops to that stage when they want moisture again. The fields round the village are masses of green, interspersed here and there with lines of the yellow mustard flower; near the houses the crops look darker than the others, and have a stronger growth, telling of thickly-laid The wells are frequent and close, and their elevated platform enables the eye to pick them out at once in the landscape and calculate ing up and down the pretty long slope leading to the hollow which is dug out so as to give them a better purchase on the ground in making the pull roughly how much land lies under each. to raise the water; the voices of men and boys at close intervals fill the air with the musical cry made when the charst is being heaved up at the top of the pull. Streams of water trickling silently along the narrow carefully earthed-up irrigation channels tell that busy work is going on, and here and there a barefooted Ját is alternately opening up and closing the little beds (kiári), which all careful cultivators use, so as to economise the precious fluid. Spare yoke of oxen stand lazily eating straw at the mud-built manger; trees, sprinkled here and there, give at once variety and shade to the scene, which to one interested in the people is very pleasing. Several hundred acres are laboriously and finely tilled, and the sweat of the brow earns good bread. The men themselves, as before noted, are of good stature, straight-Their voices are baritone, not wanting in a rough melody, and their faces are many of them comely. Draw up to them, and unless they imagine that anything is to be got by whining, their talk will limbed, and wiry withal.

Houses.

There is no great difference in the style of houses of Hindus show them fairly well-to-do, and contented. and Muhammadans. pecuniary condition of the house-holders. The best way of noting the different parts of the zamindár's dwelling will be to give a rough description of a sample house belonging to a well-to-do Jat. In the village main street, its front will be a blank wall some ten or Turn in here and you find yourself in the dahlij (or dahlij), which is a kind of feet high, with a door somewhere about the middle. porch; it is also called deorhi, as in parts of the Panjab. This is roofed with rough wooden rafters (kari), and opens on the inner side on the courtyard of the house. If it is deep, it will have supporting pillars (thamb or sittin), supporting the main cross beam (shatir) which runs along its length. In the dahlij, horses and cows are fastened up, and the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put there handy for a jump of the takht, a large seat, is often put the takht, a large seat, and the takht, a large seat, a large se or a meditative pull at the hukah. In our friend's house, in our fri look round to the left, i.e., the north end of the dahlij, you will see a khor or than or manger put up in the corner This is generally a box-like erection made of earth; the than for horses is, say, four for high the than for horses is say, a khor or than or manger put up in the corner. feet high, the khor for cattle lower, either solid, or hollow underneath to admit of an arched recess (ták), a convenience which a thrifty common of an arened recess (1907), as convenience which and spare samindar is very fond of, and will always get into walls and spare along the later than th places when he can. At the right hand end of the khor is the kundi, a hollow made in the top of the manger for the grain of the animal (when he gets any).

The rest of the manger is kept for fodder, and the outside on odder is made either of most of the outside on odder is made either of most on the outside on odder is made either of most on the outside on odder is made either of most on the outside on odder is made either of most on the outside on odder is made either of most on the outside on odder is made either of most on the outside on odder is made either of most on the outside on odder is made either of most on the outside on odder is made either of most of the manger is kept for fodder, and on the outside on odder is made either of most of the manger is kept for fodder. on the outside an edge is made either of wood or earth to prevent (11).—Sota

as the first.

(12).—Adhí rát

Chapter III, B. Social Life.

Division of time.

There will, of course, be a grinding mill (chalki) to afford the women something to do.

The divisions of time or hours of the day are as follows:-

(1).—Pasar	= 4 gharis before break
(2).—Pílí phathi or tarke	of day. The bursting of the
(3).—Bási ká wakt	yellow dawn. Time of taking the early morning meal, choii
(4).—Kalewar	hazirí = Time of the morning meal.
(5).—Dopahar din (6).—Dhalá huá din (7).—Lisra pahar	= Noon. = 1½ or 2 p.u. = About 3 p.u.
(8) —Pichla pahar (9).—Hándían ká wakt	= From then to sundown.
or Dhoráneká vakt	A gharí or ½ a gharí after sunset.
· (10).—Pahar rát gaya	=about 9 p.m.

(13).—Paharka tarka ... = A pahar short of dawn.

The local names of the days of the week are, beginning with Monday, Somwár, Mangal, Budh, Brihaspat, Sukr, Sanichar, Aitwár, and the word for these is bár (Panjabi wár or vár.) The day of the month is tith, the month being, as usual, divided into two periods of fifteen days each (pandrawára), the fortnight while the moon is crescent being sudí, and the waning time badi; the badi is reckoned

Once in three years comes the intercalary month,

=Sleeping time.

= Midnight.

laund, which, when it comes in Sawan, Bhadon, Katak or Magh, is reputed to bring a famine with it, as affirmed in the lines:—

"In the year with two months Sawan, Bhadon, Katak, or Wagh, go an sell your gold ornaments and buy grain."

Food.

The main food of the zamindár is, of course, grain, wheat and channa; jouár, makkai, bájrá with milk and ghí; rice, if he is above the averáge in means. In the cold weather, beginning with Kátik or Mangsar, he will eat jouár or makkai, mixing with it green food made of mustard leaf or cabbage. In Chait or even Phágan, the jouár is changed for wheat; or, if the man is poor, he must eat barley bread. Bájrá bread is good for the cold weather.

Meals are taken twice in the day—in the morning about ten, and in the evening somewhere about seven or eight. If a man, however, has hard work, he eats something* (básí) either bread or khichri made from bájrá, or dalyá of makkaí, or dalyá of jouár, or lassi, (sít or chha) before starting for his work, or half an hour after he has begun it. If he is well-off, he may treat himself to a sweetmeat ball (ladu) of gur, til, and wheat meal. This is considered a morning comforter, and very strengthening. His morning meal will be brought by his wife or daughter, or

^{*} Bási means stale, but in this sense it includes sad (which is strictly speaking fresh cooked food).

Social Life.

Estimate of food grains consumed in a year by an average family of five persons:—

Agriculturists.		Non-Agriculturists and Towns-people.				
Daily.	Yearly.		Daily.		Yearly.	
Seers. Mau I4 Woman 1 Old person 3 Two children 1 TOTAL 4	Grain. Wheat Barley Gram Bájra Maize Jowár Pulses (inferior) Miscellaneous	No.ol Seers 320 329 160 280 120 40 40 40 1,440 = 36 mds.		Pers.	Barley Gram Bájra Maize Jowár	No.o. Seers 480 120 100 80 40 40 1,080 seers 27 mds.

Dress.

The ordinary working dress of the Hindu zamindar is only the pagri, the dhoti (cloth worn round the loins and middle), and the kamari, a short vest with sleeves. Sometimes he takes the kamari off at work, especially in the hot weather; but he will always wear it when cutting wheat, to save his body moist with perspiration from the dust coming out of the falling sheaves. On occasions of ceremony, however, such as a holiday, at a fair, or a marriage, he will put on a longer coat called angarkha, which comes down below the knees, and in the cold weather this is often lined like a razai with cotton stuffing. This garment sometimes takes the same pattern too as our razais, and then has a rather comical effect; at others it is a gorgeous blue or purple which strikes the eye from a distance. The chádar too or cloak is worn across the shoulders over the angarkha, and is really the most picturesque part of the zamindár's custom. In the cold weather he wears a razai wound about him like a cloak (lihaf-saur). Pyjamas, i.e., trousers tight below the knee and very loose at the hips, are worn by many lambardars and other more luxurious persons. The only difference in the boys dress, as compared with the man, is that he wears a langeti round his middle instead of the dhoti, which is a ssumed when the boy is changing into the young man at 17 or 18 years of age. The women wear the gagra (also called tukri or las nga), or loose drawers; the angi, a short-sleeved vest which cover the breast but leaves the chest partly bare and the abdomen wholly so: and the orhna or cloak-veil which comes over the head and body too. The angi and orhna in the case of wellto-do zamindárs are often handsomely made of fine linen.

The Muhammadan zamindár wears the same clothes as the Hindu, and even fastens his pagri in the same way, so that it is not always easy to discern one from the other by his appearance: his kamarí or angarkha, however, is fastened differently, the Hindu

Chapter III, B. (5).—On the neck is the hansla or hansli, the usual horse shoe shape,

worn alike by Muhammadans and Hindus. Social Life.

- (6).—On the chest the women wear the jhálrá, which may be a Women's ornaments. rupee or other ornament hung on a string round the neck (7).—On the upper arm is the bázúband, a jointed ring, and tádd
 - ('d' pronounced very heavy) a broad plain ring. The Muhammadans wear only the first; Hindus both. (8).—On the wrist is the matti or kangni, worn generally by Hindus
 - only. Sometimes, however, the Muhammadans also wear it. The Muhammadan speciality here is the naugiri, a bracelet of nine pieces strung on a string: the kangni is all
 - one piece. (9).—The thumb ring with mirror (ársí) is worn alike by Hindus and Muhammadans.
 - (10).—Finger rings are worn (anguthi) on any finger by both classes.
 - (11).—On the ankle is the pazeb (or foot ornament), a ring with pendent balls, alike for Hindus and Muhammadans.
 - (12).—On the toes there are the challa and bichua for Hindus. The Muhammadans wear only the first which is plain, while the other has three bars of raised work. The challa is worn on any toe, but when the bichua is used it occupies the second, third and fourth.

Men's ornaments.

All these are worn by women only—men whether Hindu or Muhammadan wear the following:—

- (1)—On the chest the tora or kanthila made up of five chains with two blocks (singhára) where they fasten. The chains hang in front, the blocks settle down on the top of the chest on each side.
- (2).—The Hindu may wear a rosary (mála) one bead of gold and the next of coral—the Muhammadans do not wear this.
- (3).—Both wear the kare on the wrist, a plain bracelet, or ornamented it may be with some representation of a lion.
- (4).—There is the signet ring (mohr) worn by all or rather possessed by all; it is not seldom kept in the pagri.
- (5).—The big toe, whether belonging to a Hindu or Muhammadan, may get a challa.

Though these ornaments are said to belong to men, it is not a common thing to see a Hindu zamindár wearing them unless he is a dandy or dissolute fellow. Very few of the better class use them. Boys wear them up to about eighteen and earrings to book but leave them off gradually as hair comes on the face. Earring go first, then the bracelet: the youngster may keep the chest ornament a little longer if he likes, but he will get talked about and perhaps laughed at if he wears ornaments when he has become a father.

Games.

The Jat boys play hockey (gend khuli.); but the goals on either side are as wide as the place played on, and not limited to the narrow space of the English game: another game, very much answering to the fine Punjabí game of pitkaudhi, is kabadhi or touch. The party is divided into two sets each in their base, and when a man is sent by one set, one of the other set goes after him o touch him, and after touching him to get home to his own base. Chapter III, B. Social Life. Betrothal.

The Brahmin also gives him a rupee, and places a sweetmeat or some sugar in his mouth. For this service places a sweetineau or some sugar in this mount. For this barber while his confrere, the barber the gets Rs. 4 from the boy's father, while his confrere, the barber of the boy's father, while his confrere, the barber of the boy's father, while his confrere, the barber of the boy's father, while his confrere, the barber of the boy's father, while his confrere, the barber of the boy's father, while his confrere, the barber of the barb ne gets as. I from the boy's fabler, while his confrere, the barber garment. The friends also gets Rs. 3 and it may be an old garment. The matter is seen in a feast of shallow (molecule) and the matter is seen. gets its sand it may be an old garment. The mends also matter is accoming in a feast of shakar (molasses,) and the matter is accoming to allow the matter is accoming to the saffron and borax). The amount of fee slightly varies in different tribes; pushed the time of dismissal, and is called bidgi or the time of dismissal, and is called bidgi. it is given at the time or dismissal, and is called bidgit of mariel) is given at the time of dismissal, and is called bidgit of mariel) is given (nariel) is given (nariel). Rajputs, and this is done also by the Rajputs, with the rupee to the boy, and this is done also by the proceedings. The Brahmins follow the proceedings. The Shaikhs say they have only throughout like the Guiars. without any particular ceremony. Meos have slight variations from the Gujars in details, but none of importance The expense here is almost entirely on the side of the throughout like the Gujars. boy's father, who provides the entertainment for his friends, and a verbal

Marriage.

5

Marriage should follow betrothal in the first or third, or fifth subsequent year. The even years are considered unlucky. It is considered discrepantly a girl is not married by the time chair a good discrepantly a girl is not married by the time chair a good discrepantly a girl is not married by the time chair a good discrepantly a girl is not married by the time chair a good discrepantly a girl is not married by the time chair a good discrepantly a girl is not married by the time chair a good discrepantly a girl is not married by the time chair a good discrepantly a girl is not married by the time chair a good discrepantly a girl is not married by the time chair a girl is not married by the fees for the ceremonial messengers. Subsequent year. The even years are consuered unitary. It is constructed by the time she is 15, and it is dered disgraceful if a girl is not married by the time she is 15, and it is not that the contract to have her married before the is in the last the contract to have her married before the is in the contract to have her married before the is in the contract to have her married by the time she is in the contract to have her married by the time she is in the contract to have her married by the time she is 15, and it is not the custom to have her married before she is 5. The Jats say they think the girl should always be married by the time she reaches II The boy must be 5, but above this there is no limit as to years of age. The boy must be 3, but above one man has only one maximum; he will marry when he can. As a rule, a man has only one maximum; he will marry when he can. As a rule, a man has only one maximum; he will marry when he can. wife, but this is a rather the limit of cost than of fancy or custom.

A rich man will not colden told a conduction of the conduction of the colden told a A rich man will not seldom take a second wife, while the Meos, and trich man will not seldom take a second wife, while the man and the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the Meos, and the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the Meos, and a rich man will not seldom take a second wife, while the Meos, and the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the Meos, and the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the Meos, and the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the Meos, and the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the Meos, and the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the meon take a second wife, while the meon take a second wife, while the man will not seldom take a second wife, while the meon take a second wife, while Frobably all Muhammadans, take two or even three, commonly, if

The ceremonial form of marriage.

tney nave the means.

The first marriage is called by the Jats and other Hindus shadi,

The first marriage is called by the Jats and other Hindus shadi,

The same way,

and it is practised by almost all Hindu tribes in the same unknown. and it is practised by almost all rimou tribes in the same way, called phere. The eight forms of the strict Hindu law are unknown.

The formalities room be decombed as follows: called pilete. The eight forms of the strict rimau law are unknown. Two or two-sind-a-half Two or two-sind-a-half. Two or two-sind-a-half the formalities may be described as follows: Two or two-sind-a-half the formalities may be described as follows: Two or two-sind-a-half two or two-sind-a-half two-sind or two-sind as follows: Two or two-sind intimation intimation to have the marriage on a certain day. This intitude are willing to have the marriage on a certain day. they have the means. months beforehand, the parents of the girl send intimation inti-they are willing to have the marriage on a certain day. Then not less mation is written, and the letter is called pili chilli. than nine and not more than twenty-one days before how the many and Brahmin on with it to the parents of the how the many and Brahmin on with it to the parents of the how the many and Brahmin on with it to the parents of the how the many mation is written, and the letter is called nili chilli. Nai and Brahmin go with it to the parents of the box. National Draiming of With It to the parents of the bour (between sundom. The proceeding and sunrise), as well as the day of the ceremony. The Proceeding and sunrise), as well as the day of the ceremony. The procedure the marriage is called lagan. The parents of the boy come with arrival outside procession (barát) to the village of the girl but on arrival outside and sunrise), as well as the day of the ceremony. is called tagan. The parents of the boy come with the marriage procession (barát) to the village of the girl, but on arrival outside procession (barát) to the village of the announce the announce it halts, and a Nai is sent forward to announce the announce it halts. procession (varat) to the vinage of the gri, but on arrival of the of the it halts, and a Nai is sent forward to announce the approach of The friends of the party. The halting place of procession is called kiet. The halting place of procession is called on in with music and the bride now come to meet the others and all on in with the bride now come to meet the others. party. The halting place of procession is called khet. The music and party. The halting place of procession is called khet. The music and party. The halting place of procession is called khet. The means of the party. The halting place of procession is called khet. The means of the party. The halting place of procession is called khet. The means of the party. The halting place of procession is called khet. The means of the party. drums. Money, ornaments, and then the brideoroom's narty go on family. are presented at khet.* and then the brideoroom's narty go on family, are presented at khet, and for their recention either a chandle to the place in the village prepared for their recention. to the place in the village prepared for their reception, either a charpfle to the place in the village prepared for their reception, or it may be a tent. to the place in the vinage prepared for their reception, events, a called or other suitable building, or it may be a tent. This place is called or other suitable building, or it may be a tent. The third The januasa. The marriage then takes place, and on village. The januasa arrival the procession goes back to its own village. This place is called after its arrival the procession goes back to its own village.

actual ceremony is thus made. actual ceremony is thus made: actual ceremony is the bride's parents in the courtvard (chark), the dwelling-rooms of the bride's parents. the dwelling-rooms of the bride's parents in the courtyard (charle).

Chapter III, B. Social Life.

Education.

Census returns. Statistics regarding the attendance of Greener ment and nided schools will be found in Table No. XXXVII The distribution of the scholars at these schools by religion and the occupations of their fathers. 2:

nent an The	distributi	Dari	oided it
	Detalia.		n
1		9 \ 48	13 0
	e and Eurarian history		1 1
llinin's	eni eni	\	
Others	***	\ ۱٫۶\ ودونه	1
childs	en of agriculture of non-agric	ulturiota n.	012
(6.334	01 HOU - 2	as of figure	es do not in

The last two lines of figures do not in clude schools under the Deputy Commissioner Printing Presses in the Delhi District as they steed in 1881-82.

Character, dispess tion and physique of the people.

Printing Pressure in	PUBLICATIONS
	THEREAT
Name of Press.	Newspapers.
	-\-\-\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\
Mahammadi Akmal-ul-Matahia Chaamal Faiz	
Mair in many	2 3 3 1
Silara-i-Himile Pr	i ii iii
United Brees	1 strong

it stood in 1881-82, is shown in the margin. The mission schools are doeribed at pages 63-Sand the other educational institutions in Chapter V. The following is a detail of the

printing presses, other than their belonging to Government, which are to be found in the district, together with the number of periodicals published at each :-

The character and disposition of the people is described in the main. of the several castes which will be found in the next section of this graphs are taken from Mr. Marca nachie's description of the villagers chapter. of the Delhi District :-"The physique of the ordinary 22. mindar of the district differs much money

the various tribes, depending apparently more on easte and tribe than anything else. The Juts of the well villagers and

generally healthy and strongly made, with a frame which compared with a frame which which Ecucrany nearty and strongly made, with a trame which compared with a Englishman's is very light, but very often exceedingly wiry and capable of programme who accounts maked an appropriate to appropria great endurance. The average weight is supposed by an intelligent man their class to be Chandel. The their class to be Chaudah dhari and think this a fair estimate; certain's ener cases to be Chaudah dhart with the sers, or rather more than then; sers, or rather more than the sers, or rather mo it is not too small. The stat skin is a light brown, and in a young first is smooth and fresh-looking, reminding one more of the somewhat carried than another or mean by the somewhat carried than a something than the sound that the sound than the sound that the sound that the sound than the sound than the sound than the sound that the sound than the sound than the sound than the sound that the Is smooth and tresh-tooking, reminding one more of the transcription of the romewhat of the somewhat of the somewhat of the somewhat of the somewhat of the Halian olive complexion than anything we mean by the finderier and the Halian olive complexion than anything we mean by the sinderier and the Halian olive complexion than anything we mean by the Brahmina and Ahira do the bridge of the Brahmina and Ahira do the Muhammadan Tagah not much better. Muhammadan Tagah not much better.

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Seen at the allowered well are in worth. soon are animated even than those of the men. Their lighter, the arm for an at the village well, are in youth well-rounded and supplier the arm of the village well, are in youth well-rounded and supplier the time of the property of the time of the property of the time. vially with the tight-litting aller ornament chapping the birth and supplied to the tight-litting aller ornament chapping the birth and the tight-litting aller ornament chapping the birth and the tight-litting aller ornament chapping the birth and the bi cany with the tight-litting filver ornament chaping the bicer is not an incomplete or an end of complines, yet this graph is anything. Both makes because it is anything of complicity conditions as anything. Then they clean high the rule beganiful teeth, white strong and regular, which they clean high rule beganiful teeth, white The legality teeth, white, strong, and regular, which they clean high the rule legality that teeth, white, strong, and regular, which they continue to the life of the High tribes share it examples from the forms to the first of the f The hair, of course, is black of the police. In the High tribes share it except the crown look (choti) at a fact region to the high share the bond alone committees rectain a hard the bond alone. ran the limin tribes share it except the crown look (chati) The Maintenance renders smethers share the head clean, sometimes not at all 1 to a man follows then be dead not alone will concent to the man of the look follows then be dead not alone will concent. remarks a morney that the head clean, sometime a not at all a fact and all and a fact will generally by way of factorial continue.

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Chapter III, C. Religious Life. G press statistics The Belleville of the C: 12 01.

SECTION C.—RELIGIOUS LIFE.

Table No. VII shows the numbers in each tabell and in the whole district who filles on h

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religion, as ascertained in the Consus of 1881, and Tell. No. XIIII gives similar flavor Tables III. III. for towns. IIIB of the Report of the Census give further details on the subject. The district.

tion of every 10,000 of the population by religious is shown in the margin. The limitations subject to which these figures may be taken, and especially the rule followed in the classification of His inare fully discussed in Part I, Chapter IV of the Course Posts The distribution of every 1,000 of the Musalman population he wet is shown in the margin. The sector!

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the Christian population are given in Table IIIA of the Consus Report : 14 the figures are, for reasons explicit of in Part VII, Chapter IV of the Report. so very imperfect that it is not worth while to reproduce them here. Table No. IX shows the religion of the

major castes and tribes of the district, and therefore the distribution by caste of the great majority of the followers of each religion. A brief description of the great religious of the Paujab and of their prin cipal seets will be found in Chapter IV of the Genson Report The religious practice and belief of the district prevent next west posuliarities; and it would be out of place to enter here into any di-quisition on the general question. The general distribution of religions by takells can be gathered from the figures of Table in VII; and regarding the population us a whole, no more detail ! The religion of the Jat is Hinduism; but he does no be information as to locality is available.

very much about it. He talks about Parmeshour, and the bear intelligent men say they believe in only one God, but there is traditional worship of tutelary village deition (blumide) which ness ready nearer to me neart. The onumen was the halfs of men, and he has now gained his aposthesis in the Brehen's buff-fearful superstition of his descendants. lies really marer to his heart. way In much he honoured by worship at the their ball hade he had been a norther ball hade has been existing for generations in his name, a pathy heat, heat, Piller with places to burn little bunps in which are used all all the bunps in which are used all as a second Hiele and Mahammaka in develored effects and field in the to the holy to unit this part is a religious almost ring of spiritual sales. Who is his now be treated, he will pay a religious their to the definition of the property of the second of the se How it separate by a his govern builds ealway a little of the first first

^{*} AT THE ENGLISH STORY OF THE FRANCE IN THE PROPERTY OF THE PR market had before

Chapter III, C.
Religious Life.
Fairs.

consent for some week in that month. It is called the pankhá mela, because pankhás are carried in procession on Wednesday to the Hindu temple, Jog Maya, and on Thursday to the shrine of Kutbdin, for the maintenance of which a tolerant Government allows a jágír of Rs. 2,000 a year. The fair at Bahápur occurs in Chait on the 8th and 9th days of the moon, and on the corresponding days in Asoj. This is also a religious meeting; the origin of its localisation at Bahápur is said to be that a rájá in olden time saw a vision of the goddess Devi on the spot, and forthwith built a shrine. Subsequently to this, rájá Kidárnáth erected a temple of masonry, and the fair is said to have been held continuously since then. The fair at Sunipat is held on the 11th day of the muharram. Offerings of sweetmeats, bread, &c., are made at the shrine of Nasir-ud-din,* the local saint, who is said to have made a jihád upon the Hindus and to have met with a martyr's death.

Church of England Mission.

This mission owes its origin to the zeal of some members of the congregation of St. James' Church, who raised, between 1850 and 1853, the large sum of Rs. 30,000 which they made over to the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel: the Society made a further grant of Rs. 80,000, and in February 1854 sent the first missionaries, the Rev. J. S. Jackson and Rev. A. R. Hubbard, both graduates of Cambridge. Before their arrival however the first two leading converts were baptized in 1852. Their names deserve record. One of them, Dr. Chimman Lal, was Assistant Surgeon, and lost his life at the hands of the mutineers. The other was Professor Rámchandar, who became well known as a writer on Mathematics, and was successively Professor of Mathematics in the Delhi College and tutor to the Maharajah of Patiala. In 1857 Mr. Hubbard, and two younger men who had just joined the mission, Mr. D. E. Sandys and Mr. Lewis Roch, with Dr. Chimman Lal and two ministers of the Baptist Mission, were killed by the rebels, and the mission totally destroyed. Mr. Jackson's life was saved because ill-health had driven him from Delhi a short time before the mutiny broke out.

After the capture of the city in the September of that year the work was kept together by a small band of native Christians and enquirers, until, at the beginning of 1859, the foundations of the Mission were re-laid with much careful forethought by the Rev. T. Skelton, Fellow of Queen's College, Cambridge. In 1860 the Mission was joined by the Rev. B. R. Walter, of Hertford College, Oxford, in 1862 by the Rev. J. E. Whitley of Queen's College, Cambridge, and in 1867 by the Rev. H. C. Crowfoot, Fellow of Jesus College, Oxford. In addition to educational work among the higher and lower classes, with preaching and other religious teaching in the

^{*} Mr. Maconachie writes: "I once heard an account which made his death not so meritorious as that of a shahid, though it was certainly unfortunate. 'A riji wanted his horse and so killed him,' said my informant, a Hindu, who seemed rather to grudge unnecessary ascription of religious merit in the way of martyrdom. I turned to a Muhammadan for explanation. 'Well,' said ho, 'it was partly about a horse, but it was because he was a pir too.' And then he added: 'He was the first man in India who rode on horses: before his time there were none, and the Rajas used to ride on buffaloes,' The Hindu was silent."

Chapter III, C. , Religious Life. Faire.

THE PEOPLE.
CHAP. 111.
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Chapter III, C. Religious Life. Fair.

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Religious Life.

Chapter III, C. in Delhi is carried on by nine clergymen, of which a list is given in the margin, including six of the Cau-Rev. B. R. Winter 1860 Church of England Rev. H. C. Carlyon mission. Rev. S. S. Allnutt 1877 bridge Brotherhood, besides four in other -1878 districts, and by 13 Zanána missioneries. 1572 Rev. G. A. Lefroy 1879 besides eight ladies employed in the brates Nev. A. Haig Rev. J. W. T. Wright Rev. A. C. Maitland Rev. R. W. O. Martin 1883 mission. The total number of towns and 1583 villages occupied is 26, and there are sly at 1890

1882 1.000 baptised persons in the variety native congregations; of whom nearly half are in Delhi and its suburbs.

The Cambridge Mission.

The Revd. Mr. Carlyon has kindly furnished the following account of the Cambridge Mission. This Mission owes its origin to the efforts of some leading members of the Cambridge University. who thought that the time was come for the Universities to take a more prominent part in evangelising India. They believed their object would be best obtained by a body of men living and working together as a brotherhood, whose endeavours should be directed to higher education, (especially of Christian boys and young men), the training of Christian agents for educational and evangelistic well, literary work, and general contact with the more thoughtful natives. At the invitation of the Society for the Propagation of the Garnet. who also came forward with liberal pecuniary help, Dehli was selected as affording a most suitable sphere for realising the abovementioned objects, and the mission was started in India under Revd. E. Biekersteth, Fellow of Pembroke College, in 1877 with the title of the Cambridge Mission to North India. The present members of the Mission, with the dates of their arrival in India are as follows:—

Revd, E. Bickersteth	Pembroke College	1877
" H. C. Carlyon	Sidney Sussex	1878
, S. S. Allnutt	S. John's	1879
" G. A. Lefroy	Trinity	1879
" A. Haig	Pembroke	1883
"J. W. T. Wright	Pembroke	1883

St. Stephen's Mission College, Dehli.

This institution was founded originally in 1865, in connexion with the S. P. G. Mission School, to enable its students to pursue their studies up to the Calcutta B. A. course. 'It was, however, practically in abeyance till 1881, when it was resuscitated by the Cambridge Mission, a body of men working in connexion with the S.P.G. Mission. In 1882 its scope was enlarged, and it became a grant-in-aid institution, open to all comers. This extension was due to the failure of a scheme for reviving the old Government College und native auspices. In October of the same year it was affiliated to the Punjab University, which received its charter as a University in that month. Its students are prepared for the Examinations of that University only. It now (July 1893) numbers about thirty students. The following is the staff of teachers:-

Principal. Revd. S. S. Allputt, M.A. ,. G. A. Lefroy, M.A. ... H. C. Carlyon, M.A. ... Babu N. Mahendra Dutt. B.A. Professor. Professor. Assistant Professor of Machematics. ---Professor of Natural Science. Nritya Gopal Bose, M.A. Professor of Parsing. Manlavi Shah Jehan Professor of Arabic. Maulavi Jamil ul Rabmáu Professor of Sanskrit. Pandit Vibári Prasáda Dabe ...

Chapter III, C.

Religious Life.
The Baptist Mission.

On his arrival there he found only four persons (one native), formerly connected with the church; the rest had been killed or scattered. Mr. Smith immediately recommenced daily bázár preaching and teaching in the bastis. The chapel, which had been greatly injured by the rebels, was repaired and re-opened for divine service. The work was very successful, the first year especially, amongst the chamars. Seven primary schools were opened by Mr. Smith for the benefit especially of the children of the lower classes. Preaching in their bastis was also carried on systematically. During the year, ninety-four Christians were baptized (including ten Europeans), and a new chapel erected. The Rev. D. P. Broadway, and the Rev. Josiah Parsons joined the Mission the same year. Up to 1874 Mr. Smith was assisted temporarily by several Baptist Missionaries; in that year his colleague and successor, the Rev. R. F. Guyton (now in charge, 1883), arrived from England. The following year, the Rev. W. Carey, M.B., &c., established a Medical Mission at Delhi in connection with the general work of the Baptist Missionary Society. In December 1881, a third Missionary was added to the staff of the Mission. Since 1856, the membership of the native church has increased to about 300 at the central church, which this year (1883) elected its own pastor (a native), who is supported entirely by the members themselves. There are five other little churches in the suburbs, two of which number are presided over by pastors chosen by the members. Including the members of these churches there is a total of about 500 native members of the Delhi Bapust Mission churches. Forty-six persons were baptised in 1882.

Baptist Mission Schools.

There are twenty-seven schools connected with the Baptist. Mission at Delhi. The object in their establishment has been to place the means of acquiring a knowledge of the vernaculars within the reach of the children of the lower classes, and by these means to lead to their ultimate conversion to Christianity. The schools have, with few exceptions, all been begun at the request of the people themselves, and are generally well attended. Throughout the Mission, efforts are made to educate the lowest classes of the natives, more especially the chamárs. Since 1858, there have been nine Mission Schools opened in the city, seren in the suburbs, and eleven in the district (including four in the Mirath District). They now contain nearly 1,000 scholars, 150 of whom are the sons of Native-Christians. There is in addition a boarding school containing twenty-five boys. All the forty teachers are Native Christians, and lessons on the Scriptures are systematically taught in the schools; all are of the upper and lower divisions of primary schools, with the exception of the boarding school, which aims at being a Middle School. Thirteen of the boys of this Mission passed the lower standard examination last year (1882.) Most of the school buildings have been erected at the expense of the Mission, and are the ordinary thatched mud huts, except at Shahderah (Mirath District), Paharganj, Purana Qila, Faridabad, Farash Khana, and Kalan Mahal, where there are substantial brick building the property of the Baptist Mission.

Tribes and Castes and Leading Families.

Baptist Mission Girls' School. wife of the school master is employed, if possible, among the women of that district. Such is and has been the case at Maroli, Shaimh, Chiproli and Baraut. The present staff consists of four English laws and ten Bible women, who teach ninety Muhammadan pupils, 131 Hindu pupils, and 37 chamárnis.

Two years prior to the commencement of zenana work, that is in 1863, a boarding school was commenced in the Mission compound for the daughters of Native Christians who live at a distance. I: was under the care of Mrs. Parsons, wife of one of the Baptist Missionaries. It opened with eight girls. They were taught Uring English, Hindi, cooking and other domestic duties. It was afterwards removed to a hired house in Daryaganj, with an increase in In 1876, under Mrs. Guyton, and subsequently under numbers. Mrs. Campagnac's direct instruction, the school obtained much praise from the Government examiners, and continues to do so year by year. In May 1879, ten famine orphans were taken into the school; they were in bad health; two have since died and thirteen others been taken at different times. The conduct of all of there has been satisfactory; they appear happy, and never imply, by the slightest word, a desire to return to their old life. On Mrs. Campagnac's departure for England, December 1879, Miss Well took charge of the school. During the 20 years the school has existed a large number of girls have married from it, and to their Christica marriages we look with great hope for the future. Many have been and are still employed, as teachers. A permanent school-house is in course of erection by the side of the Zenána Mission House. It will afford accommodation for a greater number of girls, and it is intended to add grinding and spinning to the other dufficient At present the school includes fifty pupils, one English lady, four native women, two munshis, one darzi for teaching sewing.

SECTION D.—TRIBES AND CASTES AND LEADING FAMILIES.

Statistics and local distribution of tribes and castes. Table No. IX gives the figures for the principal castes and tribes of the district, with details of sex and religion, while Table No. IXA shows the number of the less important castes. It would be out of place to attempt a description of each. Many of these are found all over the Punjab, and most of them in many other districts, and their representatives in Dehli are distinguished by no local peculiarities. Some of the leading tribes, and especially those who are important as land owners, or by position and induced are briefly noticed in the following sections; and each caste vill be found described in Chapter VI of the Census Report for 1881.

The Census statistics of caste were not compiled for taken, at least in their final form. It was found that an enormous number of mere class or sub-divisions had been returned as castes in the schedules, and the classification of these figures under the multiple heads shown in the caste tables was made for districts only. The no statistics showing the local distribution of the tribes and contains are available. But the general distribution of the more important.

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83,555

40,250

43,215

TOTAL

Chapter III, D.	,	St	atement of Lane	ds hel	d by the p	rincipal !	Pribes.—(1	Contd.)	
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Chapter III, D.

Tribes and Castes and Leading Families.

Leading Families.

in the reign of Shah Alam, got his jágír transferred to his six sens; and the sanad has the signature of the British authorities, which Hakim Mahmúd Khán has in his possession. After the death of Hakim Sharif Khán, the British Government confiscated the jágír and gave a pension to his six sons in lieu of it. Hakim Sadik Ali Khán, the son of Sharif Khán, besides this pension had three júgír villages in the Mirath District—Dasna and two others. Hakim Sadik Ali Khán had three sons,—Ghulam Muhammad Khán, Mahmúd Khán and Murtaza Khán. Ghulam Muhammad Khán is dead. Hákim Mahmúd Khán is now the head of the family; he is a famous physician. He is a man of great learning, and is descended from a family of high esteem in the courts of the Mughal emperors.

Hakim Muhammad Husain Khán traces his descent from Nawab Khán Khanan Mahabat Khán, a great personage in the reign of Akbar the Great. The Hakim's grandfather, Hakim Razi Khán, was a famous physician in Shah Alam's time. The Hakim's father and eldest brother, Fakhruddin Hasan Khán and Razinddin Hasan Khán, were great physicians in the court of the last Mughalking. Hakim Muhammad Hussain Khán is a native physician of renown in the city, and is an honorary magistrate in the city.

Lala Sri Kishan Das, Gurwala, Banker, belongs to an old family of bankers in the city, which is well known in every part of India and in other countries. The ancestor of this family who got the name of Gurwálá was Lalá Radha Kishan. In 1732 when Ahmad Sháh Abdall invaded India this family first came into notice, and has since Lalá Radha Kishan had nine sons—(1) continued famous. Bahadur Singh, (2) Zaokiram, (3) Sheonath, (4) Mohkam Singh, (5 Jagannath, (6) Magniram, (7) Kedarnath (8) Girdhari Lal. and (9) Khushal Rai; of these nine the first five died without issue. Of the sixth, there is one son, Shankar Das, living; of the seventh there is one son, Kallú Mal, living; of the eighth there is one Munnaji living; but all these are of no importance. The present family is descended from the youngest son, Khushal Rai, whose son was Mathra Dás. His son was Bakhshi Ram, whose son was Ramji Dás. Narain Dás was the son of Ramji Dás, and adopted Srikishna Dás, who is now the head of the family. They were all famous and wealthy bankers. The present head of the family is a lad of about 18 years of age.

Banker family. His great grandfather Lalá Harsukh Rai did good service to the British Government in the reign of Shah Alam. He built the famous Jain temple at Delhi which cost him eight lacs of rupees. For the good services of Lalá Harsukh Rai, his son Shugan Chand got a jágír of three villages, Alipur, &c., from the British Government in Lord Lake's time, for which the Lalá possesses a sanad. His father, Girdhar Lal, did good service in the Mutiny, for which he possesses very good certificates; Lala Paras Dás is a well educated and respectable man, and a man of large property.

Lalá Dharam Dás, Banker.—Gulab Rai was the head of the family, who 200 years ago rose to some importance. He came from the Saharanpur district and settled in Delhi. He had two sons.

Chapter III. D. Families.

Leading Families.

did good service to Government during the Mutiny and got some land in the town of Sunipat as máfi. Prithi Singh is a landed pro-Tribes and Castes prietor and jágí dár in Sunipat and a man of some influence.

Pandit Wazir Chand.—His grandfather Pandit Ganeshi Ram, was a man of influence in Sunipat. His son Pandit Nanak Chand served Government as thanadar, ziladar and Deputy Collector of the Western Jamna Canal. During the Mutiny Nanak Chand did good service to the British Government, for which he got a jágír of three villages-Mughalpur khurd, Hareoh and Jhanjhauli, worth Rs. 3,000. After his death half the jught continues to his son Pandit Wazir Chand, who is now an Extra Assistant Commissioner in the Punjab. Pandit Wazir Chand's cousin, Dewan Singh, is a Deputy Collector on W. J. Canal, Hansi Division.

The principal families in Ballabgarh tahsil are:

The ex-Raja Nahar Singh's family.

(2.)The Sayad family of Moihna. The Sayad family of Faridabad. The Shekh family of Faridábad.

ex-Raja of Ballabgarh's family.—This was a Ját family

of Got Tawatia of Alawalpur. (See Chapter VI).

Mir Ashraf Ali of Moihna.—His ancestor Sayad Shahabuddin, came with Shahabuddin Ghori from Gurdez and was appointed Governor of Kara Manakpur, where he settled. One of the family, Sayad Chhajju, inhabited Bhaunkar in the Gurgáon district. As the family increased, one Muinuddin founded Moina after his name, which has been corrupted into Moihna, the present name of the village. Sayad Afzal Ali, grandfather of Sayad Ashraf Ali, entered the Indian army and was a resaldár. He left two sons, Mir Hidayat Ali and Mir Jafir Ali. They were both resoldars in the Indian Army. During the Mutiny Mír Hidayat Ali and some of his relations who were . also in the army were on leave. They assisted the British officials who came to their village during the Mutiny with Mr. W. Ford, the Collector of Gurgáon, and escorted them safe to Delhi, and joined the British Army on the Ridge, for which loyal services Mir Hidayat Ali, Resaldar Sardar Bahadúr, got the village of Moihna in jágír. Many of his relations are still in the army. Sayad Barkat Ali, his nephew, is a resaldár. Mir Masum Ali, his other nephew, was an Inspector in the Salt Customs Department and has retired on pension. Mir Ashraf Ali is the present head of the family, and the jágír continues in his name.

Mir Ahmad Shaft of Faridábád.—The ancestor of this family, Sayad Afzal Ali, was called from Bokhara by the Emperor Jahangir at the request of Sayad Murtaza alias Shekh Farid, the founder of Faridábad town, and settled in Faridabad. He got a máfi of 400 bighas of land with two wells and a large garden. Since then the family has lived in Faridabad. Some of the family have served in Raj Bharatpur in respectable posts. Mir Iftikhar Ali still gets a pension of Rs. 50 a month from the Bharatpur Raj. Mir Amjad Ali, Resaldar, the last head of the family, was in the Indian Army and did good service during the Mutiny. For his loyal service he received three villages in the Bulandshahr district. He also bought

Chapter III, E. Village Communities and Tenures.

Singh, son of Mittar Sain, and Baldeo Singh, son of Lachman Singh. Luchman Singh, the father of Baldeo Singh, enlisted in the Indian Army as resaldar in the first Afghan campaign, and after his return from Kábúl remained in the army. During the Mutiny Luchman Singh was in the British forces before Delhi. His son Baldeo Singh and two nephews, Ratan Singh and Gopal Singh, did good service to the British Officers in Bharatpur, for which they got a jágír. Baldeo Singh got Kharkhari rúnd in Delhi district; Ratan Singh and Gopal Singh got the villages Alta and Sáwar in Bulandshahr district; Baldeo Singh, the present head of the family, resides in Mitraun and is a landed proprietor.

SECTION E.—VILLAGE COMMUNITIES AND TENURES.

Village tenures.

Table No. XV shows the number of villages held in the various forms of tenure as returned in quinquennial Table No. XXXIII of the Administration Report for 1878-79. But the accuracy of the figures is more than doubtful. It is in many cases simply impossible to class a village satisfactorily under any one of the ordinarily recognised tenures; the primary division of rights between the main sub-divisions of the village following one form, while the interior distribution among the several proprietors of each of these sub-divisions follows another form which itself often varies from one sub-division to another. The following figures show the classification adopted at the recent Settlement:—

Statement of Tenures.

•				TENU	TRES.		•
TARSIL.	Zami	SDABI.	PATT	IDABI.	Впаттаснава.		
		Land- lord.	Commu- nal.	Pure.	Mixed.	Pure.	Mixed.
Ballabgath Delki Sunipat	***	15 9 2	29 35 6	8 13 4	130 147 37	2 2 	99 82 120
Total of the District	•••	26	70	25	31,4	4	371

The terms 'perfect' and 'imperfect,' or, as they are sometimes used 'pure' and 'mixed,' deal with the degree of separation only, not with the degree of thoroughness or uniformity of the principle governing that separation; so that the classification does not tell as much as could be wished. No difference for example is marked by it between the thorough going pattidári village, and a village in which, though its primary divisions of tarafs, pattis or pánás are based on ancestral shares, the individual proprietors of each patti among themselves hold by bháyachára. i.e., base their tenure on possession. Yet such a difference seems quite as important as the fact of there being, or not being, common land undivided,

Chapter III, E.

Village Communities and Tenures.

nial table prepared for the Administration Report of 1878-79. The accuracy of the figures is, however, exceedingly doubtful; indeed, land tenures assume so many and such complex forms in the Panjab that it is impossible to classify them successfully under a few general headings.

Besidesthe ordinary proprietary right, as represented by the right

Superior proprietors.

to engage for the Government revenue, there are in six villages in Ballabgarh superior proprietors, who take a percentage on the revenue paid by the biswahdars, but exercise for the most part no other right in the property. These villages are Phaphundah, Digh, Tajupur, Ajraunda, Alipur and Sadpura, and the percentages paid in them to the superior proprietors (ála málikán) are diverse, varying in amount from 5 per cent. to 10 per cent. Full particulars will

be found in a statement embodied in Mr. Maconachie's report.

Tenants and rent.

Table No. XVI shows the number of tenancy holdings and the gross area held under each of the main forms of tenancy as they stood in 1878-79, while Table No. XXI gives the current rent-rates of various kinds of land as returned in 1881-82. But the accuracy of both sets of figures is probably doubtful; indeed, it is impossible to state general rent-rates which shall even approximately represent the letting value of land throughout a whole district.

Extent of land cultivated by tenants.

the letting value of land throughout a whole district. The land held in cultivation by tenants throughout the district is 179,992 acres, or 34.67 of the whole cultivation. This leaves 339,425 acres, or 65:33 per cent. for the personal or khud-kúsht tenure of the proprietors. This average proportion, however, is not sustained in some parts, and indeed depends much on caste and traditional habit Where there are tenants with right of occupancy, of course the facts are rendered obscure, as referring to a state of things perhaps long ago, or modified by adventitious influences that we cannot accurately estimate. But the proportion of land held by tenants-at-will is more significant, and shows in several ways how the close proprietorship of the land works. Here will be found a small body of proprietors not apparently possessing the physical vitality to multiply sufficiently to furnish cultivating proprietors for the whole cultivated area of the village: there, perhaps in the very next village, the robust virility of the proprietary stock asserts itself by affording (non-resident) tenants all round to the neighbouring náhi-kásht estates. So long has this been going on that not unfrequently the proprietors of one village are tenants with right of occupancy in another. The Jatis largely khud-kásht, touse a convenient abbreviation of expression; his strong working hands are loth to let go any of his holding; while the Muhammadan, especially the Sheikh, is willing to eat a little less and let his muscles lie at rest. This is one of the principal causes of the considerable variation in the proportions held by proprietor and tenant respectively in different parts Near Delhi, this proportion is often a of the village cultivation: while, in some Jat villages of the more prosperous and healthy kind, the whole area is in the hands of the owners with the exception of a few acres.

The principal facts regarding the rent and cultivation of land in the district, as ascertained at the recent Settlement are given

on the next page.

Chapter III, E.

Village Communities and Tenures.
Occupancy rights.

or prejudiced enough even to think, such a title sufficient to give the right of occupancy. Such a conclusion would also in a very material degree stultify the laborious enquiry recently made into the status of tenants in the Government villages in Ballabgarh, as the gift of occupancy right was there limited (and as I think with sufficient indulgence) to those who had been cultivating 12 years before the mutiny. This rule which has of itself determined the large majority of these cases on Government estates, was adopted after careful discussion, and was intended to be something more liberal than actual law required."

Occupancy Tenants' holdings.

The size of the holdings of this class of tenants is smaller in Sunipat than in Delhi, and in Delhi than Ballabgarh, and though the average difference is not much, the aggregate is very considerable; so that Ballabgarh, which has a cultivated area of only 158,151 acres, as against 188,134 in Sunipat, shows 28,494 acres as held with right of occupancy as against 9,315 only in the northern tahsil. Delhi with a cultivated area of 172,810 has 17,685 acres. The reason of this larger proportion in Ballabgarh is found in the liberal treatment by Government of tenants in the villages confiscated from the Rájá of Ballabgarh, and this perhaps may also account for the larger average of area. The number of occupancy tenants who pay in kind is very small; indeed, except in Delhi, they hardly exist at all; and in many parts it is an argument put forward in litigation against a tenant's claim to the right of occupancy that he pays in kind, and this is said without any reference to the Tenancy Act. The immense majority of the class pay at revenue rates of the village, except when the rent has been raised by judicial decree, and this is not often the case.

Tenants-at-will.

Tenants-at-will also very often pay at revenue rates, in fact, from a reference to the figures of the foregoing statement, it will be evident that there must be at least 20,000 holdings paying nothing more than this. In other words, with regard to some 7 per cent. of the whole cultivated area of the district, the social economy so arranges itself that a proprietor gets no return from his land; and does not find it to his advantage to evict a tenant who pays only the Government revenue. This is suggestive as to the stage of competition reached by the community, and the degree in which rigid political economy can be considered applicable to it. There is no great difference in the size of holdings of tenants-at-will as compared with those of occupancy tenants, though in each tahsil they are slightly smaller.

Rent rates,

The commonest form of rent* paid by tenants-at-will, when it is something more than mere revenue, is a lump sum for the holding, called chakotá. This, though generally lower than what might be thought a full rent, often reaches a considerable figure, especially in valuable lands near towns, and in a lesser degree in the largest villages. In such places social attrition is greater, and the bonds of custom are in this respect looser than in the more secluded parts. Other modes found less commonly are, by revenue rates plus máli-káná (or landlord's fees) at so much per cent. on the revenue, or by a

^{*} Zabti rates are not common; though they are taken sometimes for sugarcare, and other high crops. But they are not important, and the rates given in the table are of doubtful accuracy.

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	Tansil.	No. of villages in the tabsil. No. of villages in which Als-Lam- No. of villages in sppointed. bardars have been appointed.	Jama of villages in which Ala-Lism- bardars have been oppointed. Frees due to Ala-Lambardars at one	cent.	Villeges with four distance on the distance with five Lambardist in each.	1	Lambarbara
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Village headmen.

occurred in two ways: Firstly, in certain cases at the Regular Settlement of 1842 villages were Ballabgarlı farmed to eultivators in the village, the proprietary body not taking up the villages at the rates then offered: when the next Settlement took place in 1872-80 these farmers reverted to eultivators, but were still allowed to hold their office. Secondly, in the ease of villages that had be come in one way or another property of Government, there being no property of Government, there being no property of Government, there and not them prietors, Government fixed on certain cultivators, and put them on the same footing as lambardars in villages owned by the zamíndárs. The pachotra or headman's dues, which is a cess of five per cent. in addition to the revenue, varies greatly in different villages, the largest in this district being Rs. The average remuneration for a smallest P 10 in Arazi Sahamur The average remuneration for a smallest P. 10 in Arazi Sabapur.

Village Watchmen.

Chankidars are employed in the usual way throughout the Their total number is 908, giving an average of 1.12 men village headman is Rs. 18-10-11. per village. The largest number is found in Narela and Mahrauli, which enjoy the privilege of having 11 chankidárs each. The distribution among the foliable is 201 Rellahearh . 201 Delhi. 21 Suninat. bution among the talkils is 301, Ballabgarh; 294 Delhi; 31 Sunipat.

There are 44 villages which are not his anough to grander. There are 44 villages which are not big enough to support a charking dar alone by the resilves to their mende work for other willness also dár alone by themselves, so their men do work for other villages also.

Other facts are given below:-

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which, with the 44 above noted, make up the 810 of the district.
The most provident against a starting and the starting and t The most prevalent castes among the chaukidárs are Shaikhs. 133:

Village Communities and Tenures.

Village menisis.

Chapter III, E. have also a right to the skin and carcases of animals dving in the village. They give one-eighth share of the carcass to the Chahras.

Chihras collect manure, and sweep the houses of the villages. Each has from ten to twenty houses under his charge. They receive one roti daily from each house, and a few seeze of grain at harrest

Khitis make ploughs and all farm implements required by the villagers. They receive 20 sears grain at each harvest per plough.

Lohars make the iron work of ploughs, and also iron tools, such as khurpis, gandásihs, &c. Like the Khátis they receive bali a maand of grain per pleagn each harvest.

Kumhárs make earthen jars, vessels, &c., for which they receive

payment in grain. Their remaneration is not fixed.

Note do barber's mork and also act as agents at betrothals and marriages. For barber's work they receive one roti. They have no fixed remuneration but they receive from Rs. 4 to Rs. 20 at marriages. The father of the bridegroom gives his not Rs. 4, and from Rs. 8 to Rs. 20 to the Nai of the bride's father.

Dhobis do the village washing. They receive five store of grain

each harvest, also one roti when they wash clothes.

Sukkos, Jhimpors or Kohers are water-carriers. They receive five sees of grain each harvest.

Acricaltural Liberta.

The subject of the employment of field labour other than that of the proprietors or tenants themselves, and the system of agricultural partnerships, are thus noticed in answers furnished by the District Officer, and inserted in the Famine Report of 1879 (1932)

"It is customary for the agriculturists to employ field laboures for (1) ploughing: (2) weeting: (3) granting the ripening cope; (4) conting them when size. They are generally paid in money, to a man two annas, a woman li anna, a chili of 12 to 15, one anna, excepting harrest limb when they are paid in grain of about the same value. Sometimes a man gets Rs. 2 s month, and his food for plauging or guarding the crops. The persons usually so employed are of the Chamár, Kell, Agri, Diásak, Lois, and Sweeper cases, who have most of them no other mans of sustenance than field labour. Some of them make shoes, made harness, weare circle, and otherwise supply the mante of the village journetion, but they are almost wholly dependent on what they receive him the cultivators as wages for field labour. Very few inhaltisants of the city of Dalis work in the field. The number of persons so employed may be price at about three per cent. on the total population, or five per cent. on the provincing extside the town of Delhi. Such held labourers are not so indebted as the poorer cultivating proprietors, for they carrot easily burner money, and for the some reason their subsistence between harrows in average years is more precentions. They do not generally get advances from the village trailers. nor do they live long on grain or money previously earned, though that does herp them going for some time after the harvest; they work at the preparations for the next Extrest, or get an extrance from the calcitator who repreharly employe them."

The mages of labour prevailing at different periods are shown in Table No. XXVII, though the figures refer to the labour market of towns rather than to that of villages.

The last two lines of Table No. XVI show the number of per-Paily tilker game sens holding service grants from the village, and the area so held tens.

Village Communities and Tenures. Wood preserves.

Chapter III, E.

zamindár. In these rakhyás, as they are called (perhaps from rakhná to hold, or keep), the prohibition against cutting or using the wood is no mere form of words. As a rule indeed the people, with that faculty of docile obedience which is at once such a help and a trouble (when it degenerates, as so often is the case, into slavish adherence to custom) to the administrator, observe the social precept without asking more about it. But if a man transgresses by cutting the wood, he is fined at different sums, generally twice the value of the wood. If he does not pay, he is put out of caste, but, as a fact, the villagers say a fine is always paid without Money thus obtained is spent in charity. There are fortysix villages at least which thus preserve trees never to be cut. The common preservation of land for timber-growing (the timber being cut at regular intervals) may be noticed here, though it is more an incident of the management than of the tenure of land. In ninety villages this is done: the trees are generally kikar or van or dhák and are cut at intervals of about five years. In some places the income thus derived is very considerable.

Bights in the village site,

The abadi, or village site is generally held in common, but the ground of each proprietor's house practically belongs to him. As regards the important point of the rights of non-proprietors, which marks almost more than anything else the degree of development of the village into a town, the practice is diverse. In 20 villages it is said (perhaps doubtfully) that non-proprietors can sell their houses with the land on which they are built; in 589 villages they may sell the materials (malba) but not the site; and in 56 they can dispose of neither. In 13 cases it was found at attestation of the Administration Paper that the matter was in dispute: in eight villages no non-proprietors had houses. In one village, Bhaskaula in Ballabgarh, there is the curious compromise that those persons who, though not proprietors in the village itself, are proprietors in villages adjoining viz., Muazzimábád and Mohabatpur, may take away the malba but other non-proprietors may not. The remaining 123 villages have no abádí.* The 20 villages where non-proprietors are said to be entitled to sell the site of houses as well as the materials are thus distributed: Sunipat 14; Delhi 3; Ballabgarh 3. Some of the places are no doubt towns where one would expect to find the rule thus, e.g. Sunipat, Mahraulí, Farídábád and perhaps Bowána; but for little places like Kurainí, Sitaoli, Nawádah zer Najafgarh, and others, it is not easy to find an explanation.

Poverty or wealth of the proprietors.

Table No. XXXII gives statistics of sales and mortgages of land; Tables Nos. XXXIII and XXXIIIA show the operations of the Registration Department; and Table No. XXXIX the extent of civil litigation. But the statistics of transfers of land are exceedingly imperfect; the prices quoted are very generally fictitious; and any figures which we possess afford but little real indication of the economical position of the landholders of the district. The subject is discussed at some length at pages 332 ff of the Famine Report of

^{*} In Delhi 50, Ballabgarh 53; Sunipat 20; and of these so far as is known never inhabited. Delhi 17, Ballabgarh 16, and Sunipat 3. About 16 it is not known if they have ever had ábádás.

CHAP III.—THE PEOPLE. der of canal-irrigated fields, increased in size and strength; the people thereafter and dress Ret this der of canal-irrigated neids, increased in Size and strength; the people themselves adopted a more luxurious style of living and dress. But this Village Community themselves adopted a more luxurous style of living and dress. Unt this the soil is cafeeled to the time. The people, however, the soil is cafeeled to the time. The people, however, and the consequence of the soil is capable to the time. The people, however, and in many places desiroyed, at least for the time. The people, and the consequence of the soil is capable to their primitive simplicity, and the consequence of the time. quence is that there is in the canal-irrigated district a far greater amount of had the old circumstances of exindebtedness than there would have been, the canal has been used, and not penditure been unaltered. Still, where the canal has been in the district penditure been unaltered.

The property not equalled anywhere in the district physical there is yet even a prognerity not equalled anywhere in the district physical there is yet even a prognerity not equalled. pennioure been unantered. Stant, where the canal has been used, and not abused, there is yet even a prosperity not equalled anywhere in the district.

The holding of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the canal proprietor is not ge abuseu, there is yet even a prosperity not equalied anywhere in the district.

The holding of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally larger than the ordinary of the canal proprietor is not generally size throughout the district, 12 to 13 acres; but he gets richer crops, especially engagene of the ground. ally sugarcane, off the ground. In a large canal village, it is not uncomthe proprietors. any sugarcane, on the ground. In a large cause vinage, 15 15 not uncommon to find a mass of cultivation of this crop, sometimes wall fanced in well fanced in mon to find a mass of cumvation of this crup, sometimes 30, 10 or 100 acres standing together, with regularly-marked narrow-lands, well fenced in, acres standing together, with regularly-marked narrow-lands, alike for seed. leading from one end to the other.

Sugarcane is expensive alike for seel,

Notice of the other planting, care while growing, and expressing when ripe.

the cost and is in fact the great stand by in those villages where it is grown the cost and is in fact the great stand by in those villages where it is grown the cost, and is in fact the great stand by in those villages where it is grown.

Sugarana is common shirthy in the Thirtie at all and in some villages where it is grown. Sugarcane is grown chiefly in the Khádir chak, and in some villages in the Ranger but nowhere done it come to each a size of in the constraint of the size of in the constraint of the constrain Bángar, but nowhere does it come to such a size as in the canal villages. gar, but nownere does it come to such a size as in the Gamily in moderate of the most part in moderate of the other chaks have proprietors for the most part in the nonrest and there the "The other chaks have proprietors for the most part in there the circumstances. The Kohi chak probably is the poorcst, and there are people arc sometimes very low in their standard of living. the thatch; the people arc sometimes very low in their standard support the thatch; sometimes mud walls support to chapter of thatch; sometimes mud walls are chaptered of the inferior grains, and the dress often is only a food consists mainly of the inferior grains, and the dress often is only a food consists mainly of the inferior grains. mere chappars of thaten; sometimes mud walls support the thaten; the food consists mainly of the inferior grains, and the dress often is only a rises of district coarse actton cloth in the form of a chidar. The general piece of dirty coarse cotton cloth in the form of a change. Line general average however is better than this. No. 1, it is true is in debt, but his average however is better than this. and it is because he has a large state of living in separathing like comfort, and it is because he has a large. piece of dirty coarse cotton cloth in the form of a chadar. average nowever is percer than this. NO. I, it is true is in debt, but has a large style of living is something like comfort, and it is because he has Had he for his moderate holding that he becomes embarrassed. style of fiving is something like comfort, and it is because ne has a large family for his moderate holding that he becomes embarrassed. A who fewer months to feed he might be as well off as the shrewd Jat No. 4. who fewer mouths to feed, he might be as well off as the shrewd Jat No. 4, who, in a holding of only caren agree has managed to care money and image rever mouths to reed, he might be as well our as the shrewd Jat No. 4, who, and knows in a holding of only seven acres, has managed to save money, and knows in a holding of only seven acres, though under a temporary cloud, His how to use it when saved. No. 9, though under a he probably pays his way. His nerhans get right again; in an ordinary year he probably pays his way. perhaps get right again; in an ordinary year hc probably pays his way.

house is not much certainly; but it is better than the manage to live.

were not for the cows of the latter. he would hardly manage to were not for the cows of the latter, he would hardly manage to live. not for the cows of the latter, he would narmy manage to live.

"The general condition then of the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition than the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the proprietor may be described as a condition that the condition the condition that the condition that the condition th moderately prosperous; there is little margin for him to fall back on in said times, and his style of living is somewhat low; A marriage, a funeral with ordinary expenses. he generally pays his way. with ordinary expenses. he generally pays his way.

or bad luck with his cattle, may bring him into difficulties, but believe that may extricate himself from in many cases. There is reason to believe that legal fees are in a few instances the cause of embarrassment, if not of minlegal rees are in a rew instances the cause or embarrassment, it not or running the tenants with occupancy rights, and still more the tenants in circumstant to the inferior in circumstant perhaps he emphased as heing inferior in station, to be inferior in circumstant. Perhaps be supposed as being inferior in station, to be inferior with occupancy perhaps be supposed as being inferior in station, to be inferior with occupancy of the tenant with occupancy perhaps be supposed as being inferior in station, to be inferior with occupancy of the tenant of the te may extricate himself from in many cases. has sometimes (as in case No. 2) an auxiliary income from parohitai, priest not only to nav his way but save money. In the which enables him not only to nav his way but save money. has sometimes (as in case No. 2) an auxiliary income from paronnar, Pro-In Iv dues, which enables him not only to pay his way but save money. The ly dues, which enables him not only to pay his way but save money. The ly dues, which enables him not only to pay his way but save money. The ly dues, which enables him auxiliary income becomes most important. the case in question this auxiliary income becomes most important. number of such privileged persons is necessarily limited, Whether adventitious aid the tenant is often a man of substance.

The the present time he concerns the present time he can always and the tenant is often a man of substance. auvenumous and the tenant is often a man of substance. When he generally pass remain so is a matter of doubt. Up to the present time he generally pass remain so is a matter of doubt. On his land, i.e., he pass no rent; so only the revenue-rate of the village on his land. remain so is a matter of doubt. Up to the present time he generally pays no rent; so only the revenue-rate of the village on his land, i.e., he pays no rent; so only the revenue-rate of the village on his land, i.e., he pays no rent; so only the revenue-rate of the village on his land, i.e., he may be as well off as the protection of the village of size. He may be as well off as the pays that, provided his holding is of a fair size. only the revenue-rate of the village on his land, i.e., ne pays no rent; so that, provided his holding is of a fair size, he may be as well off as the protector of other land in the same village. There seems little doubt. provided as nothing is of a. Intrastile, no may be as well of a however, that when the new assessments shall be announced a general attempt will be that when the new assessments shall be announced. prietor or other land in the same village. There seems little donot, novever, that when the new assessments shall be announced, a general attempt of rent, and on the part of the proprietors to obtain rent. or an enhancement of rent, made on the part of the proprietors. when the new assessments shall be announced, a general attempt will be made on the part of the proprietors to obtain rent, or an enhancement of the tenant and this must lessen the profits of the tenant. made on the part of the profits of the tenant. The position of the tenant and this must lessen the profits of the tenant.

CHAPTER IV.

PRODUCTION AND DISTRIBUTION.

SECTION A.—AGRICULTURE AND LIVE-STOCK.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture and Live-Stock.

General statistics of agriculture.

Table No. XIV gives general figures for cultivation and irrigation, and for Government waste land; while the rainfall is shown in Tables Nos. III and IIIA and B. Table No. XVII shows statistics of Government estates and Table No. XVIII of Forests. Table No. XX gives the areas under the principal staples, and Table No. XXI the average yield of each. Statistics of live-stock will be found in Table No. XXII. Further statistics are given under their various headings in the subsequent paragraphs of this Chapter. Land tenures, tenants, and rent, the system of agricultural partnerships and the employment of field labour have already been noticed in Chapter III. The following table gives the areas as ascertained at the recent Settlement.:—

		Minual.		CULTURABLE.		CULTIVATED.				
Tanent	TOTAL ABBA.	Uncul- turable.	Unas- sessed.	Waste.	Lately aban- doned.	Gar- dens.	Well water- ed	Natura ally moist	Unirri- gated.	Total of culti- vation.
Ballahgarh Delhi Sunipat	2,45,828 2,76,405 2,80,452	41,460	3,000 7,055 <i>921</i>			407 1,196 951	13,912 17,527 43,950	5,590 20,257 1,453	1,39,624 1,35,1°8 1,41,896	1,72,892
Total of the district		1,40,860	*11,909	1,86,069	4,873	2,657	75.339	27,300	4,16,728	5,19,417

^{* 8.932} cultivated-making total land actually cultivated 528,349.

The seasons. Rain-

The total annual fall of rain and the manner in which it is distributed throughout the year are shown in Tables III, IIIA, IIIB.

The rabi crop is called locally sidhi, the kharif, sawani. Land bearing two crops is called dofasli, but this means two full crops, such as wheat after cotton, while for land which bears a lighter crop after a full one, such as channá after jawár, there is another name, fánsil. Land giving one crop a year is called badhwár.* Three crops in a year are very rare indeed in Delhi; they can be managed only by putting in a fast-growing crop like chiná, and the land requires rest after it. Two crops even are impossible without manuring. The comparative importance of the harvests varies in different parts, as a general rule, the Khadar mainly depends on its rabi crop, while the Bangar rain-lands naturally yield their revenue in the autumn harvest. And this point will indeed tell

^{*} The word wss originally, Bhadwar—meaning the land depending on the Bhadon rains for its cultivation.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture and Live-Stock Distribution of soils.

		PRODUCTION AND BIRD	
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gricultural implements and appliances.

nas pesides, hoe 17,527 ton country hoe 43,950 edges like a Saw edges like a saw The reins he checks them with 75.399 he gandásah is a 2,209 2,001 (kuliárí), and the spade-hoe parcane, and a smaller (khurpa), and the small hand tool of the same kind is a gandal land actually ala, khodua, or rampra (dratri) with which he cuts m tool of the same kind is a gandau land actually ald, khodud, or rampra is a kind of spud with a thick half ain and hand, thrust downward. In a of action is the same as thresh tool used for hoeing, smaller is a khoduli; kasou, a same principle.

A smaller one is a khoduli is kasou, a same principle.

A smaller one is a khoduli is a kasou, the latter part of September 1 september 1 september 2 september 2 september 3 septemb

Sowing.

Sowing for the rabi begins in Asauj, the latter part of September, and continues will Mangsir has half gone, the beginning of December; the order of sowing is gram, barley, wheat. always sown with a rough drill (orlina) fastened on to the plough. This is merely a thick piece of bamboo, the upper end of which has been split into many clies and arrend out to be to form a kind of been split into many slips, and opened out so as to form a kind of trumper shape. It is strengthened with an iron ring put inside. (and) and bound with leather outside; the top part of the ordina is It is big enough at the mouth to let a man's full hand

[•] In Sunipat this is wholly Khadar: in the other two tahells the villages mostly contain both agar and Khadar soil. • In Sunipat this is wholly Khādar: in the other two tunsus two tunsus the other two tunsus t could dorle. 159,417.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture and Live-Stock. Harresting.

Crops are harvested by the zamindárs themselves, but they generally require the aid of hired labourers, so that in almost every village some of this class will be found. They are for the most part Chamárs, but sometimes Chúhrás. Mális generally cultivate on Brahmins often their own account, but at times work as labourers. go shares (sájhú or sánjhú) with the proprietor, furnishing one yoke of oxen to one of the owners. A Jat does this too when he is poor. The rates of pay for the kharif season are 2 annas per diem and a roti of 1 seer weight, but the bread given in is sometimes enough for a full meal. The owner calls on the men he wants for next day the evening before, and looks them up too in the early morn-Then they all go a-field together and begin work. gharis of the day have passed the basi meal is brought by the owner's boy or girl for all the men. After this work goes on again till noon, this for themselves unless it be a dear season for labour, when The work is again resumed, after a pull at the hukkah, and goes on in a quiet way till the proprietor will have to find it. sundown or after that, and then they all go home together. No one forces the labourers to stay, for no one is extremely auxious to go; they even take an interest in getting the crop cut and gathered in quickly. The general understanding is that the cutting goes on till sundown, and the collection of the sheaves after that. is given that evening or the day before. If payment is not made, the man is known and marked, and they laugh at him the next season.

In rábí the labourer mostly takes grain; he won't take cash. The rate is 4 seers, or more, reckoned by sheaves (púlis) which give cheated by very big sheaves being taken, the owner puts his own people to arrange the stock (kindra); the big sheaves are put down something less than a seer each. at the bottom, and so are safe. A man cuts about 1 pakká bighá i the day. The hired labourer eats three times a day, and there is not much inferiority in his diet to that of the land proprietor. has not the rank of the zamindár, but otherwise is happy.

Hoeing and weeding.

Hoeing and weeding (nalái) are considered good for all crops. but some need this more than others. Sugarcane is never satisfied in this way; cotton likes also much to be clean; while wheat will do with one good hoeing: also jowár, and bájrá. Pepper wants a great

Carting grain to the threshing floor.

The grain when cut is earted to the threshing-floor (pair; Pundeal, and tobacco the same. jabi, kahvara); a collection of these is called a khata. will generally see to his crop himself by sleeping there at night till it is threshed out, which he loses no time in doing.

Modes of storing grain.

Grain is either stored in kothás or rooms of the house, or in kothás threshing-floor and your enemy, deal quickly." in one of them, or in a large canvass bag theká which stands upright by the weight of the grain in it, and holds 50 or even 100 maunds. grain when thus stored (besides rats and mice of course if there are

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture and Live Stock Amiter of neils.

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अन्देश वर्षे सहीहे.

found chiefly in the circles near the hills where the riching the race renders the use of rough half-hearth stone terr cheap. The there are not very many places where this kind of construction answers. there is the moder well a well of which the sides are builting there is the moster well a well of which the East are unit. length raving from the content has the segments of a cartament. son, and not one deep-suns, last for many years symmetric extension. They are found in Tany circles, but specially in caring solutions of the Knoder. generation. They are found in Trany circles, but specially in community of the Knizdan. Lower than these in the scale of entirely willings of the Knizdan. Lower than these in the scale of entirely and durability is the Jar-ka-kia. Sa mere hole durability is the Jar-ka-kia. Sa mere hole durability is the Jar-ka-kia. Sa mere hole durability and mith brushwood of various reasons and the second state of the scale of the second state. in the remove remains with present out of Tarons Index were sent in the country and in the country and make the course term cheap, and in these whose last out one the course term cheap, and in these whose last out. course tert cheap, and in most places last only one, two, or there

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.Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture and Live-Stock-Sinking a well.

Quality of water.

full, expectation of good water is unreasonable. Some of the intelligent zamindárs, however, doubt whether this is thoroughly reliable. A more reasonable custom is that of distributing alms, large or small, on the completion of the undertaking. When asked what would happen if this is not done, the zamindárs reply—"who would omit such a good precaution? The work of danger is finished, and thanks are reasonable." The speculative character of the risks in sinking a well is shown by the proverb: "To dig a pond requires but money. But Rámá's aid (is necessary) for a well."

Distinctions are drawn here, as elsewhere, as to the quality of the water, which may be sweet (milha), brackish (malmula), or salt (namkin or khárá.) The salt water is of course not good for irrigation; but the brackish wells often produce the finest crops, nor is this good effect confined alone to inferior soils. On superior soil also it is considered best of all to have the first watering (kor or korwá,) made by brackish water, and then water with sweet. Where there are two wells within a practicable distance of each other, the water of both will be interchanged in this way: the brackish water irrigating the lands of both for the kor, and then the sweet water coming over all in its turn. The reason given for this is that the land requires some degree of saltness; it is alleged that there will be a perceptible difference in the yield of two fields side by side, one of which has the malmalá kor and the other the sweet. The appreciation of salt as a manure is shown from the fact that it is common to scrape the ground round the abadi and carry it on the fields, one cart-load being a dose for two kachá. bighas. Distinction is even made in the quality of land from its trees; the best banjar is shown by the growth of dhák; then bánsá (Tephrosia purpurea), and lastly kair. The bánsá itself is known as a salt plant, and consequently the land near the plant for a short time is productive, but afterwards becomes what it naturally would be.

Irrigation from bands.

: Irrigation from bands is a characteristic feature in all parts of the district lying under or near the hills. The principle is that of concentrating the rainfall so as permanently to moisten a given cultivated area, allowing surplus water to run or drain off; and applications of this principle were successfully made on a large scale by the former rulers of the country. In no respect perhaps does the civilization of the Mughal Empire show better than in this of artificial irrigation. In a report of 1848, written by Mr. E. Battie, charge of the Najafgarh jhil works, there is an interesting account of two of the largest of the hill circle bands, Chhatarpur and Khirkí. But there are numerous others, which only a good local knowledge gives an acquaintance with, for most of them are in a semi-ruinous condition, and not a few are in out-of-the-way corners, among ravines or on the slope of not very accessible hills. Some are evidently too far gone for repair, some are not worth it,* but others almost certainly are. It gives a sense of dreary desolation to ride through these gaping holes in what

^{*} There is a printed correspondence on this subject with Government letter, No. 2,927 I, dated 10th July 1877.

Chapte	rT	٧,	A.

Agriculture and Live-Stock. List of bands.

No.	Namo.		Tahsil.	,	Remarks as to area irrigated, condition, &c.
1	Ambarbai	•.•	Delhi	•••	E-timated to irrigate 215 acres, but the band, has been broken, and is not world repair, in fact it probably did more hard
2	Arangpur	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	Ballabgarh	•••	About 130 acres are moistened by this brain which is a natural basin, and thus is easily
8	Bijwasan	•••	Delhi	•••	kept in fair working order. About 300 acres were moistened by this band, but it is broken now, and should not be repaired, as it does more harm
4	Chhatarpur	•**	Ballabgarh	***	than good. A fine band, moistening some 500 acres broken and wants repairing. If it is not repaired, deterioration of the neighbouring
б	Gwalpabari		Gurgáon	•••	lands is certain. Another fine band; the lands of six villages would benefit from its repair, and will be
8	Nauz Khás	***	Ballabgarh	•••	damaged by its continued broken condition. About 40 seres here form a haux, or bath- tank, in fair preservation, and there is no
7	Khirk(***	Ballabgarh	***	chance of damage. This band is broken, and might well be re- paired; it would prevent the formation of ravines and fissures over a large extent of ground.
8	Mabpálpur	***	Delhi	***	A very fino masonry band, but broken and neglected; would moiston 200 seres if well
D	Mánakpur Basantnagar.		Delhi	740	looked after, and preserve other land too. A first-rate position, for a band, but broken now in the middle; still moistens about 100 acres. Ravines are forming near the
10	Narkina	***	Delhi	**1	break—a masonry band. A kacha hand made in 1861, and breken in 1870. No need to repair it; it is not in a
11	Pálam		Delbi	•••	good place. A large work, broken, and not lit to be repaired. If bands are made on this side of the hills, they should be made higher up,
12	Rajokhri	4	Dolhi	***	i. c., more to the east than this lice. A very strong masonry hand of ancient make, long since partially broken; now it would be difficult to repair, as deep
13	Sultánpur		Ballabgarh	•••	ravines have formed. A pakka hand repaired by the samindars; somewhat broken but not much, and will be now doubtless repaired. Moistens some
14	Tilpat		Ballabgarh		All agrees. A large kachs band, made in 1861; broken by the line of the Agra Canal. It still moistens some land, but not mach.
15	Tughlakábád		Ballabgarb		Two bands, one an old one, the other many in 1861; broken, but might well be re-
16	Yábyánagar		Ballabgarh		110 acres moistened by them- A kachi band made in 1861, and still in good repair Some abiana is taken here.

Irrigation by tor and dál.

Of the two modes of irrigation, that of flow (tor) is far more common than by dál or lift. Irrigation by lift is more advantageous in this, that it implies a higher level of land to be irrigated, and a greater labour in irrigating it, so that as a rule a tor village is likely to be more water-logged than a dál one. The average acreage under dál irrigation for seven years in the kharíf was 1,617 acres as compared with 38,690 tor; and in the rabí 4,545 as compared

Chapter IV, A. Agriculture and Live-Stock. Canal-imigated area.

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Chapter	ī۷,	A.

Agriculture and Live-Stock.

Tabular Statement of agricultural operations for various crops.

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Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture and Live-Stock.

Tabular Statement of agricultural operations for various crops.

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Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture and

Live-Stock.
Cultivation of Sugarcane.

than a foot along the furrow. The seed-stalks are taken out of the clamp; one man cuts it up, or rather two, as one cannot do it well alone. Another man carries it to the place where it is put in ; four or five are wanted to plant for one plough. There is, however, no lack of hands, as all the young boys of the family help in this, in order to get the holiday food, which is given on planting day. The food consists of rice, sugar, and ghi and mixtures of these, and such food-giving is called Mah Kuli or gur bhata; the work begins in the morning, and goes on till it is done. Three yoke of oxen can get through ten kacha bighas a day. One yoke ploughs and the other two follow with the soldad (clod crusher). is given a month after planting, and, if the rains are good, three subsequent waterings are enough; if they are not, as many as five may be necessary at intervals of a month. Cultivation of cane by well-irrigation is not uncommon in the Khadar of Sunipat, but is not usually if ever met within the Delhi tahsil. In Ballabgarh, there are three or four villages which have it. Delhi, too, has some in the Dáhar circle, from natural flooding. A fair well may water 3 binks. in a day.

Hoeing is carefully kept up; the number of times depends much on the character of the season, and varies from five to nine or ten. The first time comes a few days only after planting. A man's fair work per day at hoeing is put at three biswas. When the canes get high, they are generally tied together at the top. Cutting begins in October; it is a practice for Hindus not to begin till after the Dassehrah. Hired cutters get Rs. 3 a month and their food, but the zamindár, unless lazy, does much himself in this. A two-ox waggon should cart one bigha's cane in a month, but the animals do other work probably besides. Rent paid by zabti is about Rs. 5 per bigha, but in some villages it goes even up to Rs. 9. It is taken at the time the Government revenue falls due, and does not depend on the quality of the crop. No difference is made in the rent, whether in the previous kharif another crop was taken; but when

the land was left fallow it is called tapar.

The expenses of cultivation may be thus summed up:-

Ploughing ten times	•••	•••	•••	10	0	0	pakka bigka.
Manure	***	••	• •	5	0	0	
Seed	•••	•••	***	5	0	0	
Irrigation	•••	***	•••	4	2	0	
Price of water	3 2 0						
Cleaning of water course	1 0 0			_		_	
Hoeing	•••	•••	•••	4	0	0	
Tying up canes	***	***	***	2	0	0	
Cutting and stripping	•••	***	•••	7	0	0	
Rent	•••	•••	•••	6	0	0	
Carriage to the kolhú			•••	3	0	0	
737 time (autimoted)				2	n	0	

The kollú or sugar mill is made of four kinds of wood, first quality sál, second kíkar, third siris, fourth farásh; kíkar is the one most commonly used. The mechanism of the kollú is the

way of getting at the púla is rather curious. As many sticks as laid down in a line make up 21 háths (or cubits) make a parya, and either 29 or 21 paryas (according to two different standards) make a pull; a rupee will buy three or sometimes four púlls.

Chapter IV, A.

Agriculture and
Live-Stock.

Cultivation of
Sugarcane.

Cultivation of Melous.

rarely; it would of course be a more delicate process than the primitive one above described: yet this too requires care. If the boiling is too prolonged it spoils the gir and diminishes its selling value. Delhi district gir goes to Baghpat, Biwani in Hisar, and Rewarl and Firozpur Jhirka in Gurgaon. The zamindar generally manages his gur-making himself, and there is no commonly received rate of sale, but Baghpat rates more or less influence the market. There is no custom of kataoti as in Shahjehanpur. The weight of juice turned out is commonly of the sugarcane. The straw is used for burning in the gurqoi; it is good for nothing else; and from the juice of its weight will turn out in gir.

Melons are chiefly cultivated on the sandy soil of the river side near Delhi; the soil considered good is dumat, (i.e., do matti) being a earth and a sand. The cultivators are chiefly tenants, such as Mális, Káchis, Malláhs, and Shaikhs, but in some places proprietors cultivate themselves. Before the crop is sown an agreement, generally in writing, is made fixing Rs. 5 to Rs. 15 per acre as rent for rabi. Manure is bought at a rate of Rs. 6 per 100 bullock loads weighing 21 maunds each when the field is within two miles from Delhi; when it is further off, then from Rs. 7 to Rs. 12 per hundred. 150 loads are required for an acre of land. The cost of manure per acre therefore is Rs. 9 for villages within two miles from Delhi and from Rs. 10 to Rs. 18 for villages beyond this. This includes both cost and carriage. When the manure has been brought to the field the cultivator must buy phla bundless of káns grass, for fence and screen for the young and tender crop. This will cost him about Rs. 10 an acre, a thousand bundles (phlas) being required at Re. 1 a hundred. This screen is called taota, and fence bhei. Pits are dug in a line at distances of three feet yard square, and 11 yard in depth. It is not essential to have the depth so great, but as the sand silts in from the side it is generally done. The object is to reach down to the dumat soil above spoken of, which is found sometimes at less cometimes at more than this depth. On every line the grass fence is stuck in to protect it from sand blown in by the wind. When the pits are ready, the manure is mixed with earth and thrown into hem, and a hollow bed (tháonlá) is made in the centre of the pit. Chirty men can thus prepare an acre of ground for seed in one day, and get for it Rs. 7-8 at a rate of four annas per head. Three men re required to sow the seed when the tháonlás are ready, and at two innas a day each. Half a ser of seed will sow an acre, and costs eight innas. The labourers get into the pits and bury two seeds in each On the north side of the bed the screen (tatti) is erected. háonlá. Within 12 days the seed should sprout in every thaonla; where it loes not, fresh seeds are sown. When the plants are a month old, hey are earthed up by hand to give strength to the roots; three men lo the work is an acre of land in one day and are paid four annas a nece. About a fortnight after this the screens and fences are pulled ip, and the pits are filled up with loose earth; the pula is spread over it nd the creeping plant laid carefully on it; ten men will do this in an cre per day costing Rs. 2-8. The grass keeps the plant from geting too dry. The crop is not irrigated, except in years of drought, then it gets water once; the labour of 12 men at two annas each will

Chapter IV, B.

Occupations,
Industries and
Commerce.

Breeding operations.

in Karnal. At present there are only one Government stallion horse, and one donkey-stallion, at Molarband near Badarpur, and at Sikri, both in the Ballabgarh tahsil. These are under the management of the Haupper Stud authorities. The breeding of oxen and cows is chiefly managed by the 'Brahmani' bulls (locally termed ánkal and bijar); though in one or two places Hissár bulls imported by Government have been let free with good effect. Rams are not of large size, some of the best are used for fighting. There are no horse or cattle fairs held in the district.

SECTION B.—OCCUPATIONS, INDUSTRIES AND COMMERCE.

Occupations of the people. Table No. XXIII shows the principal occupations followed by males of over 15 years of age as returned at the Census of 1881. But the figures are perhaps the least satisfactory of all the Census statistics for reasons explained in the Census Report; and they must be taken subject to limitations which are given in some detail in Part II, Chapter VIII of the same Report. The figures in Table No. XXIII refer only to the population of 15 years

Population.		Towns,	Villages.
Man a sudamitant	:::	10,091 193,626	247,363 192,435
Total		203,717	439,798

of age and over. The figures in the margin show the distribution of the whole population into agricultural and non-agricultural, calculated on the assumption that the number of women and children dependent upon each male of over

15 years of age is the same, whatever his occupation. These figures however, include as agricultural only such part of the population as are agriculturists pure and simple; and exclude not only the considerable number who combine agricultural with other occupations, but also the much larger number who depend in great measure for their livelihood upon the yield of agricultural operations. More detailed figures for the occupations of both males and females will be found at pages 69 to 78 of Table XIIA, and in Table XIIB of the Census Report of 1881. The figures for female occupations, however, are exceedingly incomplete.

Table No. XXIV gives statistics of the manufactures of the district as they stood in 1881-82, and Table No. XLVA gives similar figures for the manufactures of the Municipality of Delhi.

Mr. Lockwood Kipling, Principal of the Lahore School of Art, has kindly furnished the following note on some of the special industries of the district:—

"The reputation of Delhi as a manufacturing centre is perhaps greater than is warranted by the actual state of the industries now practised there. Many of the trades for which the city is famous, like, those of Lucknow, Gulburga and Haidarábád, (Deccan) are relics of the Musalman Courts, and only precariously survive. Nearly all are now, so far as their profits are concerned, in Hindu hands. Before it was a Mogul capital Delhi was a Hindu city; and it would seem that in wealth and in social and political influence the Hindus are resuming their ancient sway. And the tendency of the leading castes in modern times is more

- neipal industries and manufactures. Chapter IV, B.
Occupations,
Industries and
Commerce.
Jewelry.

is said to be in many cases produced by quite other men than those who sign the pictures.

Enamelling on gold as an accessory in jewelry is here practised, and it is not easy to distinguish the best Delhi work from that of Jeypore.

It is impossible to give any trustworthy figures as to the value of articles that might be classed as jewelry. But it must be considerable, since there are Delhi jewellers, i.e., tradesmen who sell Delhi wares, in every large town.

As to the objects produced, there is scarcely anything called jewelry that cannot be imitated at Delhi; and the continual passage of tourists has created a demand for several varieties of native work not strictly belonging to the locality, as well as for articles of English style. Massive rings with one precious stone set in strong open work, and almost as well finished as those in a Bond Street window, are now as frequent as the rings with several stones which are perhaps more like the true Delhi notion. Many of these are tastefully arranged and skilfully mounted. The embossed silver work of Madras, with Dravidian figures in relief, known as Swami jewelry, is more coarsely imitated. In the best Madras examples the figures are entirely handworked, but they are often made at Delhi by die-stamping, afterwards chased. Filigrain has always been used as an accessory to more solid work; and now the lightness of Genoese or Cuttack articles is sometimes attempted. and silver gilt wire woven into a kind of matting pattern is applied to belts and bracelets. All the varieties of watch chain are imitated, and some adaptations of native chains have been done. The patterns of necklaces worn in In gold, suites of amethyst, the hills are now regularly wrought at Dehli. gold framework topaz, turquoise and other stones are made. The is sometimes twisted or of babûl work. This last is one of the oldest and most characteristic forms. The name is taken from the pretty and sweetly-scented flower of the babul or kikar (Acacia Arabica) which is a ball of delicate yellow filaments. It is also called khár-dar, or thorn-Convex forms, as the centres of brooches, the fringing balls set round miniatures, &c., are studded over with the minute gold points, each of which, with a patience and delicacy of hand that defy European imitation, is separately soldered to the thin plate base. Good, soft gold alone is used for The articles are the points, while the base is of slightly inferior metal. finished by being placed into a sharply acid bath, which produces a clear, mat-gold bloom, that does not long survive wear and tear. Major McMahon says that various eastes were ornaments of this sort before its suitability for objects of English use came to notice. A bolder form of similar work on the bur. (The cal is called gokru, and is based apparently of medieval European war-fare. A ball trap of Indian and also studded with spikes thrown to impede the progress of is also called a gokru.) This is worn by Jat men as an earring, and the same treatment is applied to women's bracelet. Among other patterns produced by soldering small details on a base may be mentioned a rose pattern of minute flowers. This is common all over India, but is perhaps most perfectly done in the red-stained gold ornaments of Burmah. The miniature paintings of Delhi are frequently set in gold cable twist patterns as bracelets, necklets and brooches. Small plaques of Pertabgarh enamel, a semi-translucent green incrusted with tiny gold-chased patterns of figures and animals, are also, with true and false avanturine, mounted in a similar way. almost invariable feature of Delhi work is a thin shell of gold incrusted with better gold, or with stones of some kind and afterwards filled with hard The enamel work is often spoiled by being done on gold too thin to withstand without distortion the heat of the enamel fire.

[Punjab Gazetter

Occupations

Occupations, Industries and Commerce,

Silversmiths' work.

that of Cutch is wrought, and the superficial engraving of Fingles silver plate is skilfully imitated.

No workmen are more careful than Indian gold and silversmiths in the handling of the precious metals. As they use no benefice, it is filings cannot be preserved, as in English shops, in a leather agree fitted to a drawer; but they file on a wooden standard set in a large dish, and their small crucibles for casting are most carefully handled. Yet is pays some people to buy their ashes and sweepings for the sake of such gold and silver as they may yield. The leading silversmith of built presents his to the poor of his easte, and a respectable sum is annually extracted from the refuse of his shop. It is not often that beaten silver work of the boldest kind is seen in process of exceution. That is to say the embossed plates of a silver howdah, the large cartonche-shaped pendants of the necklaces with which the elephant is adorned, the state chairs made for Rájás and chiefs, and similar objects. It is impossible not to admire the boldness with which the metal is handled in many of these works, but it must be admitted that when new they are not free from a touch of vulgarity.

The steps of gradation from such work to the ornaments in common

The steps of gradation from such work to the ornaments in common use are really very slight. There is no difference in the processes or took, and the silversmith who shapes the chaunk for a native lady's head does not give it much higher finish than the elephant pendant receives. In this, as in the goldsmith's neater craft, the die or thappa is greatly used with a notable economy of labour. The ornament represents in many cases merely so much money, and neither the owner nor the maker, who is usually as much shroff or money-lender as eraftsman, cares greatly about its form. Many of the forms, however, are beautiful, and few are entirely without interest. At Delhi a large variety is made, because the women of Rajputana, as well as those from the nearer districts, are now enslowers.

Mock jewelry.

Large quantities of sham jewelry made of brass, coloured glass, and plata glass with tinted foil behind it, are sold. These preserve the native forms of earrings, bracelets, and head ornaments, and are often very pretty. Year by year, however, a larger number of European imitations are imported; notably large brass beads in open work rudely counterfeiting filigrain. It is not always easy to say in such things where Germany or Birmingham ends and Delhi begins, for the stamped tinsel settings are combined with wire, silk and beads in the most ingenious way, till the completed ornament resembles those made in good materials of real native work. There is no affectation, however, about the ornaments cast in zine for very present people, where the workmanship, though following the forms of silver and gold, is rough and costless as the material. A considerable amount of taste is displayed in the stringing and arrangement of small coloured glass beads. From one shop the writer purchased 32 necklaces of different patterns, some in beads, others made of seeds and suitable for faqira, deal others of lac, coated with yellow foil with coins, also in lac, langing to them, and others in wood. No two were alike, and the price asked for the 32 P.14 two rupees. To a native purchaser it would have been less. Nowhere class can so much bravery be bought at so cheap a rate; and from the provents quoted by Dr. Fallon about Dellii dandyism, it would appear that cheap finery is a 'note' of the place.

Brass and copper-

The coppersmiths are no less skilful than the workers in silver. In the Lahore and other copper bazars, visitors are invariably offered real Delist degchis; and most of the smiths from other places admit that they are not so skilful with the hammer and stake (sandán) as those at Italis. In shaping a circular vessel of changing diameter they find it necessary to solder pieces on; while a good Delhi coppersmith shapes the whole within

Chapter IV. B.

Openpations, Laitetries and Commerce.

nothing of any importance is now produced. It has been demonstrated however by Col. Montgomery Hunter that, supposing a demonstrative to arise, there are curvers carable of rivaling the sid work. This gentlemen had the force and curven mainson of a large form frequent united like experimtendence. The result was suppossful, but the completed work had more of stone than wood treatment.

Sitte-marity.

Stone carring is not rear entendirely grantied, but there are name. rous examples of modern work which show a light average of earliers. The spendiels or mitedia of diverselys seem to be she invente field for the stone-curver's em. The felicle, as in all motern with it encessively spare and flowing in line, and somewhat they in detally exampting in this respect with the simpler and more rigid lines and sometim ferms of the cruoment of the fest periods.

Plusier wirk.

In the open course and larger rooms of the bester close of native house the plicators and armies are writing in places with which through late in design, is pretty and material in ensembles. The create description which has taken place of late peops in the off misself smill is similarly by the working themselves to the introloxich of the very different medial of treating mail-surfaces accessors for our large Doglish buildings, where immense stretches of wall have to be expered with plaster as estimitely as possible. A skilled medianen will tell you that any cooky can beam in die krode morker and as a monter of foot the greator park of the mon empliyed by the Public Works Department are only from neil lobourers and very few of them are capable of working our such details as the penienties of ranks or the folioted placeters and midnife of the armies which are universal in the work of filty years ago. Even in English Amgalows built at that period, the native inner, through evidently II or case in our was, remargular domestic harms, looke our in quaint your ling on the wills and in emimented mantel eiger. The demok and the mirer section herem here now effectually checked this earl the roy misted has leasned here to combine the more and leave durable planter much ever wrought in India, with yan, addaria bidecames.

Delli progisia

Dellizotesp. as purchased and unlessions by Europeas, is a unit el reconi origin. For many years large fore or coordeline for newly domestic use, fore of a smaller size for the pickles and preserves which are specialities of Deblit and small damite or inkernals, have been upde in व मार्ग्याव काम की प्राप्तिकोंक कामराक्ष्ये मांक्षेत्र व व्योधक. There मान्य का सुक्तीसामा की the wire in the Punjah Exhibition of 1894, and no notice was when at it ly Europeans.

In 1869, the writer passing through Dalhi, purchased a number of these jors and took them to the London Enhithtin of 1870, where their fine texture of glaze, a rough, drok-egg-like crotting, was admired by countiescure, actably by the late Mr. Fortuny, a calcimated Spanish painter, then visiting England. (One of these untiles by the way happened to be marked mortal in the naive name for a jar, and was afterwards deeribei en a museum label as coming from Minalán, a pon en the Browse

Since that time new forms have been suggested to the potters. There gre mostly flower vases, eliqule, eurabit, and similar decornive shapes of Indian or Persian chammer. As this confloation of postery is entirely new to this pure of India, there are no emiliators to be interfered with Lark of enterprise and ignorance of the possibilities of the art have presented in from being largely developed. Little has been done to mentile demand. and nething to anticipate or stimulate it. The maximum have been drugged into notice with apparent relutance, and do not estilly sample

Occupations

Industries and Commerce. Gold and silver embroidery.

no apparent effort, but it leaves the thread perfectly covered with gold evenly coiled; no silk showing and no uneven overlapping. The exceeding tenuity to which gilded silver can be drawn out and yet retain an unbroken surface of gold has been continually dwelt upon in all accounts of wire-drawing. It does not pay to draw out tinsel so fine. Silver unfortunately will bear the admixture of a considerable quantity of copper without losing colour to ordinary eyes; and Delhi kalabatún contains often more copper then the purchaser bargained for. The various qualities of gold thread are discriminated at a glance with perfect accuracy by experts. I have often failed to assort a series of skins according to their value—a task which is easy to any gold embroiderer. It is evident from a tradition mentioned in Mr. Griffiths' catalogue of Bombay contributions to the Calcutta International Exhibition, 1884, that the manufacture of gold thread is of some standing. Mr. Griffiths writes: "Ahmedabad and Surat workers state that their ancestors came from Champaner, and that the craft was originally carried on by Musalmans at Debli and Agra, under the patronage of the Mughal Government. A tradition is current that a goldsmith from Champaner went to Delhi and happened to see gold and silver thread, and wanted to learn the art, but could get no information. Feigning blindness he got himself employment as a cooly to hammer the bars of silver. There he learned the art of gilding and drawing wire to the required thinness. He afterwards opened a workshop in his native town, whence the process was carried to Ahmadabad, Paithan in the Nizam's territory, Surat, Yeola, Poona, and Bombay." This story is told, mutatis mutandis, of nearly every skilled handicraft in existence, but it seems to show that the art was unknown in the rich Hindu region of Guzerat.

The gold thread work of Gulburga further south was also Muhammadan. So it appears likely that the early Hindu civilization, concerning the splendours of which so much has been written, was innocent of golden tissues.

Embroidery on leather for shoes has been mentioned as one of the uses to which gilt thread is put. But this is only one of many uses. As gold thread is not easily worked on the needle, it is usually laid on the surface of the cloths to be ornamented and tacked down at intervals with a stitch of silk through the fabric. To do this conveniently so that one hand is free to pass the reel on which the gilt thread is wound, while the other stitches it down, a frame is necessary; henco gold embroidery is called karchob, frame work. But this name seems to be used to distinguish more particularly the large embossed work familiar in State elephant jhools, masnads and the like. The finest examples of this work must be sought for in native States and in European museums, and it is but seldom that large and important pieces are now wrought. In eases where the whole of the field is to be covered with gold work, a stout cotton cloth is stretched on the frame. On this the design is drawn by the nagquish, and the parts to be raised are worked over with thick, soft cotton, dyed yellow, passed on the surface from a reel, and stitched down at each passing with ordinary sewing thread. The centre veins of leaves and other forms are marked with stitching, and a kind of modelled surface is thus produced in thick cotton thread. Over these forms the gold and silver thread is laid, their lines following sometimes those of the cotton underlay and sometimes going in opposite directions. For the grounds, varieties of basket-work and herring-bone stitches are adopted; spangles and lines of twisted wire sulma are introduced to mark and relievo the leading lines of the pattern. Several men work at once on these fabrics, and they are not so long in execution as this description may seem to indicate. The sheen of the gold threads interlaced in different directions as they cross over raised surfaces,

Chapter IV, B.

Occupations, Industries and Commerce.

Gold and silver embroidery.

Silk embroidery.

pedestal, which is very frequently the richly carved base of one of the enriched pillars common in the old buildings of Delhi.

Gold lace proper is not now, Mr. Stogdon writes, so much used as before the Mutiny. "At present Husain Bakhsh and his son Aziz Bakhsh are the only manufacturers in Delhi." The machine used is an exceedingly neat contrivance, an elaborate loom in miniature, the heddle strings converging to a sort of pedal board, like that of an organ on a minute scale. The great toe, which in the native foot is flexible and free in movement, picks out and depresses each heddle in turn with unerring precision. This quadrumanous facility of grasp is of the greatest use in silk-winding, braiding, and gilt cord-making, the great toe being constantly used to hold the work.

Silk embroidery is of several kinds. A long loose stitch in white filoselle, worked in pine or other forms on grey, blue, and other colours of Cashmere (English), is one of the commonest. Shawls and articles of female attire are the usual forms, but it is not now fashionable. The woollen fabrics of Cashmere and Amritsar are also decorated with silk embroidery. This is frame work in all cases. Satin of European make is coming into increased use for silk embroidery, and some of the recent patterns, notably one counterfeiting the markings in peacocks' feathers, are brilliant and effective. As a rule, however, it can scarcely be said that this gay and attractive work is good or even tolerable art when judged by any serious standard. There seems to be a touch of flimsiness in most Delhi work, and this characteristic is not likely to be cured by the determination of the public on one hand to pay cheap prices and of the dealer on the other to secure large profits.

Tinsel printing.

Some cotton-printing is done of no remarkable quality. Silver tinselprinting on Turkey red muslin, salu, is made in quantities for weddings,

&c., but it is inferior to that of Kangra and Rohtak.

Delhi-painting.

The miniature painting of Delhi has grown from the practice of illuminating costly M.S. books, introduced from Persia, and greatly in favour at the Mughal court in its palmy days The names of calligraphers of the 13th century still survive in Persia, though little remains that can be confidently attributed to them. During the 16th and 17th centuries the art, which from the manner of its growth and fostering, as well as from the costly splendour of its finest examples, has some right to be called a Royal one, flourished in India. The catholic spirit that led the great Akbar to have Sanserit epics translated into Persian, inclined him to look favourably on the limner's art, though it is opposed to Muhammadan religious canons. Abul Fazl in the Ain-i-dkbari makes the monarch say :- "There are many that hate painting, but such men I dislike. It appears to me as if a painter had quite peculiar means of recognising God; for in sketching anything that has life, and in devising its limbs one after the other, he must come to feel that he cannot bestow individuality upon his work, and is forced to think of God, the only giver of life, and will thus increase in knowledge."

The courtly author may be responsible for the form of this utterance, but there can be no doubt about the spirit in which the Emperor regarded the liberal arts. It is true that there are no representations of living figures in Muhammadan architecture, excepting in the altogether abnormal pottery decorations of the north front of Lahore Fort; but it is clear that the portrait limner was encouraged in the practice of his art. There is scarcely an art collection in existence that does not include examples of Perso-Indian pictures. Mr. W. W. Hunter writes: "The Royal Library at Windsor contains the finest examples in this bye-path of art. A noble manuscript of the Sháh Jahán Nameh, purchased in Oudh for £1,200 in the last century, and now in possession of Her Majesty, will amply repay a visit." The

Prices, Weights and Measures and Communications.

Delhi painting.

Chapter IV, C. work is that the craftsman learns to do one thing, and then goes on doing it for the rest of his life. The Delhi draughtsmen many years ago learnt how to draw English gentlemen and ladies and English soldiers, and to-day when left to himself the naqqash shows English people in the costume of sixty years ago. The lady, even in pictures of a railway station, wears a huge poke bonnet, large gigot sleeves, her waist is just under her arm, her skirts are short and tied sandals are on her feet. The British officer invariably wears a cocked hat and a high cravat, while the private soldier is crowned by the tall infantry shako with a large round knob atop; a head dress, by the way, which copied from our troops, is still worn by the retinues of some native princes.

> The introduction of photography is gradually bringing about a change in Delhi miniatures. The artists are ready to reproduce in colour any portrait that may be given to them; and, although sometimes the hardness of definition and a certain inky quality of the shadows of some photographs are intensified, much of their work in this line is The stiffness which used to be their unfailing characteristic admirable. is disappearing; landscape, a branch of art treated in indigenous art with stern conventionality, is attempted in a freer spirit, and it seems not unlikely that a new and perhaps more fresh and vital way of looking at nature may be adopted. Supposing this change to be desirable, a point that is not absolutely certain, the Delhi work of to-day is strongly marked by the faults of its qualities—the excessive delicacy and minuteness of handling, well expressed by their customary phrase, ek bál galm, a brush of a single hair, the quality of the handling being far more esteemed than sound drawing, good colour, or truth of effect.

> The ivory used for miniatures is prepared in the city, and the mounts, said to be of Aleppo glass, are also cut, rounded and polished here.

Course and nature of trade.

There are no statistics available for the general trade of the district, though the total value of the imports and exports of the Municipality of Delhi for the last few years and a brief notice of the trade of the city will be found in Chapter VI, and Table No. XXV gives particulars of the river traffic that passes through the district. exports and imports of food-grains have already been noticed at page 121. The trade of the district as a whole practically coincides with that of the city, its great central emporium, and cannot usefully be brought under separate description.

SECTION C.—PRICES, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES,

AND COMMUNICATIONS.

Prices, wages, rentrates, interest.

Table No. XXVI gives the retail bazar prices of commodities for the last twenty years. The wages of labour are shown in Table No. XXVII, and rent rates in Table No. XXI; but both sets of figures are probably of doubtful value. The Table at pages 139-40 shows the village prices for the last twenty years, as ascertained at the recent Settlement, together with the rates assumed for assessment purposes.

Statement of average prices in Dellie district.—(Continued.)

Chapter IV, C.

Prices, Weights and Measures and Communications,

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Chapter IV, C. Prices, Weights and Measures and Communications.

Railways,

Roads.

Rajputana State Railway, all using the station belonging to the East Indian Railway. The two former are of the broad or five feet six gauge, and the latter the narrow or metre gauge. The two former cross the river at Dehli which is their terminus, whence the Rajputana State Railway traverses the district in the direction of Gurgaon for about twelve miles, with one station at Palam, about

ten miles from Dehli. The main lines of road are up and down the Grand Trunk Road, the Agra road, the Gurgáon road (for Rewári and Fírozpur Jhirka), and the Rohtak road for the due west parts. A cross-road line of importance comes into Sunipat tahsil from Kharkhaudah in Rohtak going eastward to Bághpat, and there is some little traffic along the Chhansah and Kabulpur Bángar line in the south. It would be good to have a public thoroughfare along the banks of the canal. Some of the heaviest traffic of the country lies in the cotton, gur, and grain carts of the canal villages of Sunipat. The cross-country lines of road in that part of the tahsil are often soft and rutty, very often cut up by wrong-headed water-courses that seem to think the more turns they can take the better, and being on a high level compared with the long-used hollowed-out lanes, frequently flood them more copiously than the fields intended for irrigation. If on the new line of the canal a good kacha road were laid down on one side, and if country traffic were not merely winked at but encouraged and developed, it would prove a real and great benefit. A very full list of the roads will be found in Appendix IX to Mr. Maconachie's Settlement Report. The table at the top of next page shows the principal roads in the district stage by stage, with the conveniences for travellers to be found at each stage. Beides the metalled roads, there are several important un-

metalled roads in the Dehli district:—

1] miles. Dehli towards Gurgáon via Baraich 12 Sarai Rahillah Khan to Najafgarh 9 Basant to Najafgarh 7 Nangloi Ját to Najafgarh 16 Azádpur to Bághpat -10 Between Gurgáon and Bahádurgarh viá Najafgarh 24 Najafgarh to Dahisrah 10 Nangloi Jat to Alipur 11 Sunipat to Maniarpur ferry ---38 Kharkandah via Thana Kalan to Baghpat 12 Sunipat to Baglipat ••• 29 Bádli to Zafarpur via Sunipat ...

There are also others the old imperial road but not now kept up. of less importance.

Besides the police rest-houses mentioned above, there is one at Najafgarh. The dak bungalows are completely furnished and provided with servants. The police bungalows are furnished, but

have no servants.

Post offices.

There are two lines of horse dak running from Dehli to Karnál and Rohtak. They are run by a contractor, Moti Ram, who is subsidized by Government. A railway, however, has recently been opened from Rewari to Hissar, and this passes within about 20 miles of Rohtak, whence, for the future, the mails will be delivered in Rohtak.

CHAPTER V.

ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE.

SECTION A.—GENERAL AND MILITARY

Chapter V, A.

General and Military. Executive and Judicial. The Dehli district forms one of the districts under the control of the Commissioner of Dehli. The ordinary head-quarters staff of the district consists of a Deputy Commissioner, a Judicial Assistant Commissioner, one Assistant Commissioner, two Extra-Assistant Commissioners, Judge of the Small Cause Court, District Superintendent of Police, two Assistant District Superintendents of Police, and the Civil Surgeon. One of the Extra-Assistant Commissioners is generally a European in charge of the Treasury, and one of the Assistant District Superintendents of Police is specially in charge of the City Police for which he receives an additional allowance.

-	Taheil,		Kanungos and Náibs.	Girdawars.	Patwaris.
	Dehli Sunipat Ballabgarh	•••	2 2 2	3 3 2	81 82 61

There are three tahsils, Sunipat, Dehli and Ballabgarh, all connected by metalled roads, and each in charge of a tahsildár, who is assisted by a náib tahsildár. The village revenue staff is

shown in the margin.

There are two Munsiffs in the district, one having jurisdiction within the Ballabgarh tahsil, and one having jurisdiction within the Sunipat tahsil, and 20 villages of the Dehli tahsil. There is no Munsiff's Court at the Sadr, the Small Cause Court taking its place.

The statistics of civil and revenue litigation for the last five

years are given in Table No. XXXIX.

Criminal, Police and Gaols.

The executive staff of the district is supplemented by two benches of Honorary Magistrates, one at Dehli, and the second at Sunipat.

The Police Force is controlled by a District Superintendent and two Assistants, one of whom is in special charge of the city of Dehli. The strength of the force, as given in Table I of 1881-1882, is shewn in the margin. In addition to these, 908 village watchmen are em-

		Distri	BUTION.
Class of Police.	Total strength	Standing guard.	Protection and detection.
District (Imperial) Cantonment Municipal Canal	517 11 591 22	100 22	417· 11 591
Total	1,141	122	1,019

ployed, giving an average of 1·12 men per village (see Chapter III, page 90); the largest number is found in Narela and Mahrauli, which have 11 chaukidars each; the most prevalent castes among these are Shaikhs, Fakirs Brahmins, Sweepers

Chapter V. A. General and Military. Table No. XXXI gives details of balances, remissions, and agricultural advances for the last fourteen years; Table No. XXX shows the amount of assigned land revenue; while Table No. XIV gives the areas upon which the present land revenue of the district is assessed. Further details as to the basis, incidence, and working of the current Settlement will be found in the next section of this Chapter.

Education.

Table No. XXXVII gives figures for the Government and aided high, middle and primary schools of the district. The high school is at Dehli, and consists of two parts, English and Vernacular. There are middle schools for boys at Najafgarh, Arab Serai, Palam, Mahrauli, Ballabgarh, Farídábád and Sunipat.

There are primary schools for boys in the following places in the Dehli tahsil: Arab Serai, Palam, Najafgarh, Purána Kila, Aliganj Serai Rahulla Khán, Madipur, Nangloi, Karala, Kanjháola, Jaunti, Tihar Nangal, Riha, Bijwásan, Mitraon, Jharaunda, Bhawána, Narela, Shamspur, Alipur; in the Ballabgarh tahsil, at Mahrauli, Ballabgarh, Faridábád, Mothki Masjid, Chirágh Dehli, Badarpur, Tilpat, Bhopani Khán, Kheri Tagah, Gharura, Atali, Mohana Sikia, Paota; in the Sunipat tahsil, at Sunipat, Nangal Jakhaulí, Kailánah, Murthal Bhatgaon, Larsauli, Ganaur Purkhas, Garhi Bráhminan, Rohat, Gohnah, Kundal. There are primary schools for girls at Nizámul-din and Ballabgarh. The district lies within the Delhi circle, which forms the charge of the Inspector of Schools at Dehli. Table No. XIII gives statistics of education collected at the Census of 1881, and the general state of education has already been described at page 53.

Besides these district schools, there are several owing their origin to private enterprise. Foremost of all comes the Anglo-Arabic School. It is supported by the proceeds of the Intimad-ul Daula endowment fund. Intimad-ul Daula, Nawab Fazil Ali Khan, prime minister in the Court of Oude, in 1829 endowed the Dehli College with the sum of Rs. 70,000. The income of the endowment has been applied exclusively to the education of the Muhammadans of Dehli since 1872, when the present school was established. On the 31st March 1883

it consisted of-

			Total			306 1	bose	; ,
(3)	Lower " "		400	•	***	187	"	
(2)	Upper Primary Department	•••			•••		17	
(1) (2) (3)	Middle Department	•••	***,	•	•••	30 I	1078	í

The next institution to benoticed is the Government Normal School for the training of vernacular teachers or students, who are sent up from all the districts of the Ambala circle for employment in the Vernacular Schools. On the 31st March 1883 there were 61 men under training. Attached to the Normal School is a Model School, consisting of a Lower Primary School. On the 31st March 1883 it contained 34 pupils. In addition to the schools mentioned above, there are the following aided schools: The Cambridge Mission College,

General and Military.

The Delhi College.

talist Dr. Springer. Mr. Cargill was the next principal, and after him Mr. J. Taylor, who lost his life in Delhi at the outbreak of the Mutiny through the treachery of a Muhammadan whom he tracted. The Library and School were completely sacked during the Muting but many of the Oriental works were recovered after the outbreak was quelled. A new institution was founded in 1855, and was affiliated to the University of Calcutta in 1864. The old college attained to great celebrity as an educational institution and produced many good scholars. Its pupils are to be found in positions of trust throughout Upper India. It educated up to the degree standards of the Calcutta University; and since 1868 some of the highest places, both in the B. A. and M. A. examinations, have been held by the students of this institution.

District school.

In the beginning of 1858, after peace was restored in Delhi, a talesili school was established in the building at present occupied by the primary school in the Chaori Bazar; and in the latter part of the same year this was converted into a District School, Master Ran Chandar being appointed the first head master, and the expenses of its establishment being borne by the Nawab Fund. The school is held. in the large block of buildings between the dak bungalow and the church, which was originally the residence of Nawab Abdul alad Khán, one of the Ministers of the Emperor Sháh Jahán. The occpound contains 3; acres of land and a boarding house for rural stipend-holders. The building consists of a large hall, which our tains the library, an examination room 90 x 211, and five goodsized rooms for the high school classes, the drawing master, and the Sanskrit teacher. It would appear that from the date of Lari Lake's annexation of the Delhi subah in the beginning of the present century up to the year 1842, the building continued to be used as the Residency. From the latter year, up to the Mutiny, it was occupied by the college classes and the principal. After the Muting, up to 1866 (when it was made over to the education authorities for the use of the college classes), it was converted into quarters for a battery of artillery. The school and its branches are under the superintendence of a European head master assisted by four teachers of English, Mathematics, and general knowledge, (of whom two are Europeans,) an Arabic teacher, a Pandit, and three Persian and Vernacular teachers. There is also a Librarian, in whose custod? The foregoing me is the Library of the extinct Delhi College. employed in the High and Middle Schools only. In the Upper Press. School, situated in the city, four English and three Vernzcular teachers are employed. The Lower Primary in the same building has five Vernacular teachers, and in the three branch schools in different parts of the city nine teachers are employed. Statistics for the last five years are given at the top of next page.

Normal School.

A Normal School for training Vernacular school-masters was established at Delhi in 1860, and in 1864 a similar institution was amalgamated with it, which up to this time had existed at Ambala. The Normal School is intended to train and instruct school-masters and candidates for teacherships in the Primary Schools of the Ambala circle of inspection, which includes the Delhi, Hissar, and Ambala divisions. For several years previous to the opening

Chapter V, A.

General and
Military.

Normal School.

·			RES	CLIS OF E	TAMINAT	1075.	
Yearr		ho rolls		Passe	ed in		Danna
Z JAKU	Expendituro.	Number on the rolls.	1st Grado.	2nd Grado.	3rd Grado.	4th Grado.	Revier
1878-79 1879-80 1880-81 1881-82 1882-83	8,544 6,421 6,589 4,708 4,708	115* 72 52 64 60	1 No. 3rd Results	3 10 class not know	4 n yet.	11 17 14 35	

* Includes 48 students of the Model School attached to Normal School.

Industrial School.

specimens of various trades and arts of pure Delhi manufacture should be formed. On Colonel Holroyd's application, the Municipal Committee voted a lump sum of Rs. 3,000 for initial expenses, and a monthly grant of Rs. 250 for the establishment and the pay

of pupils.

The Managing Committee accordingly opened the school on the 1st March in a house known as Amu Jan ka Diwan Khanah, near the Tahawwur Masjid, with a staff consisting of a manager, three carpenters, a smith, a weaver, and a carpet-weaver. Since the school has been opened, the attendance has averaged 28, vic., twelve carpet-weavers, twelve carpenters and four in the smithy. The carpet-weavers have already turned out fair work, and will exhibit probably this year in Calcutta. The boys employed in this trade are bhisties' sons. chamárs and Christians. The carpenters' class is composed of carpenters' sons. They have made the school furniture from designs furnished by the manager, and are learning freehand drawing. The smith class is a small one, and is composed of Christian lads Owing to the difficulty of obtaining a teacher in the Punjab, the Committee propose employing an assistant teacher of the School of Art Bombay. Unfortunately the Lahore School of Art caunot supply one, though at one time it was expected that a competent draughtsman could be got from there. There are no female classes, and no examinations have been yet held; but in addition to the small sums paid daily to the boys, it is proposed to give scholarships by and by when the school is more advanced. A large quantity of books on art, drawing, perspective, geometry and mechanics, as well as tools and a lathe, have been ordered from England; and when they arrive the school, with a good teacher, will undoubtedly make rapid progress and have increased attendance, as Delhi boys are very apt.

Anglo-Arabic School. After the recapture of Dehli in 1857, a school was established on the ruins of the old Dehli College, which was at first supported entirely from the proceeds of the Nawab Fund, and afterwards partly from that fund, and partly from Government grant. In 1872 it was considered advisable by the local Government to spend the income of the Nawab Fund exclusively for the education of Musalmans, and

Chapter V, A.

General and Military.

Delhi Civil Hespital

convenient for the populous suburbs, as well as for the city. The hospital is to contain 80 beds, and to have quarters for the staff, and a female hospital and dispensary. This hospital will front the Lahore Gate and be situated on the bank of the canal on a dry and airy site. The Revd. Mr. Smith, of the Daptist Mission, first started the Lålkna Dispensary when Vice President in 1864, and the Sadr Bazar Dispensary was founded by the Civil Surgeon, Dr. Smith, in 1862, Native Doctor Gholam Ahmad Khan having held charge for the last 21 years.

Launtic Asylum.

The Lunatic Asylum founded in 1840, existed till 1861, when it was broken up and the whole of the imnates transferred to Lahore. From 1861 to 1867, the building was used for jail workshops, but in the latter year was again taken for the purpose for which it was originally intended. The Asylum covers an oblong plot of ground, 420 feet by 470 feet; it is situated on a high and well drained position above the khidder and about a mile from the bed of the Jamua which runs to the east, towards which the buildings face. The outside walls are composed, as are all the buildings of the Asylum, of stone and lime mortar masoury; they are substantial and well built. The building consists of an office, observation wards, separate cells, hospital, work shops, principal ward, and separate rooms, wards for women, and European wards.

The present stati consists of one Deputy Superintendent, one hospital assistant, one head warder, eleven warders, one matron, two assistant and menials. The general management of the Asylum is as follows: The under sleep, either in the barrack, or in the rooms in the central yard. Four keepers sleep in the barrack with the patients. Criminals and dangerous lunaties are confined separately at night. Both the female warders pass the night with female patients. The whole of the immates are awake about sunrise and are taken out, and after a time, varying with the seasons, those that will work go in their various employments. They have their morning meal at 10 a.M., and rest till about 2; and then working till 5 P. M., when they are bathed and washed in summer and lave their evening meal; after dinner they amuse themselves with musical instrument and cards, &c., till sunset or dark; when they go to bed. The following figures show the working of the Asylum for the last five years.

Year.	Cash expended	Value of article receiv- ed from manufacture department.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total
1878 1879 1880 1891	0,110 8,213 7,705 0,147 10,467	131 453 417 663 507	9,259 8,796 8,243 9,810 10,974	116 91 76 85 93	20 21 19 21 21	145 118 03 105 115

General and Military.

Cantonments, troops, &c.

defences are mainly confined to the double object of commanded the city, and protecting the Railway communication across the Jamna. This is at present secured by the Fort, and by a Garrier consisting of:—

1 Battery Garrison Artillery. 4 Companies of European Infantry. 1 Regiment of Native Infantry.

the Europeans residing in the Fort, and the Native Regiment in the adjoining lines of Daryá Ganj. The Fort wall is about 11 miles in eircumference, and on the east side, where coincident with the rite wall, consists of a simple vaulted drop of 20 feet to the bal of the Jamna, the remainder being a masonry wall 40 feet high with a double tier of loopholes, and protected by a variled ditch 12 feet deep with a covered way and glacis. The two main gates, the Lahore Gate on the west, and Delhi on the south, are protected by rectangular masonry envelopes armed with ordnance, firing through embrasures. The flanks of these envelopes spring from the enceinte, which commands them by ton feet. On the north side is the important out-work of Salimgarh, separated from the enceinte by a small channel of the Jamna 30 yards with. spanned by a masonry bridge. This work has an earthen paragraph. with stone revetment, 25 feet high. Its interior is commanded from the enceinte and the Railway passes along the level of its terre plein, entering by a masonry bridge over the small channel of the Jamna at the west, and passing directly on to the main Jamus bridge on the east side. On each of the main gate envelopes and mounted:-

Two 24-pr. ... Smooth-bore guns
,, 8-inch ... Howitzers
, 8-inch ... Mortars

which both command the town and sweep the ditch. On an indicated portion of the N. face of the enceinte are two 8-inch howitzers sweeping the line of Railway in opposite directions, and in Salimgarh are two 24-pr. smoothbore guns commanding the bridge and river, and one 8-inch howitzer sweeping the main with from the town at the east, whilst finally within the fort are four land 9-pr. field guns, and two 12-pr. brass howitzers. The total ordname thus available is:—

Six 24-pr. .. S. B. Gune
Seven 8-inch .. Howitzers
Four 8- .. Mortars
Six ... Field pieces

for which the requisite stores and 200 rounds per gun are maintained within the fort. The fort is commanded from the Ridge at distances varying from 1,000 to 3,000 yards, and the view of the intervening ground is much interfered with by foliage and buildings, but the glacis gives a good, clear field of fire round the wall for 500 yards, except at the north-west, where considerable electric would be necessary in anticipation of a siege. A scheme for rangement of the fort, including rifled 64-pr. and 40-pr. guns, also signified howitzers, has been matured, and some of the employees on the eastern face prepared, but this will not be taken in hand till

	. 02		23	~>14TT	11011	WII.	M AD	m FIV	ANCE.		
Chapter V, B. Land and Land Revenue. Early Revenue Administration.	Villages.	Year.	Inhabitants.	Oultivators.	Plougha.	Wolls.	Cattle.	Total Area.	Cultivable.	Jame nettled in 1821-23.	Anbroquent Ju.
	1.—Pabsara 2.—Chhidya Yúsafpur 3.—Ghasáoli 4.—Ghayáspur 5.—Sunpera 6.—Pahnera 7.—Patti Bráhmanán 8.—Begáh 9.—Chándanli	1826 1842 1850 1826 1842 1850 1826 1842 1890 1826 1842 1880 1842 1880 1848 1848 1848 1848 1848 1848 1848		41 "42 15 "49 69 "131 25 83 29 77 67 107 4 112 154 154 154 154 154 154 154 154 154 154 154 154	17 43 10 28 31 10 48 12 69 24 68 68 68 68 68 68 68 68	13 16 4 7 24 10 39 10 49 19 6 44 118 12 26	83 535 26 143 310 1,003 121 182 216 339 350 28 60 850 1,784 211	2 636 877 863 1,090 523 1,914 1,854 1,517 2,200 1,112 2,527 1,049 2,527 1,049 2,527 2,014 822 629 321 6,007 3,734 3,934 650 853 653	2,236 749 762 749 424 509 1,344 1,212 1,272 1,709 1,053 949 2,291 865 1,019 1,834 703 1,834 703 3,44 5,766 3,650 618 645	2,000 1,131 1,250 2,900 400	577 (1.57) (1.57

Summary Settlements.

.down.

If an estate was fairly lucky, the Settlements made with it appear to have been in Sunipat as follows:-1.-Before 1817-the existing demand.

2.—From 1817-18 to 1824-25—First Summary Settlement. 3.—From 1825-26 to 1829-30—An agreement, or series of agreements,

hardly authorised enough to be called a Settlement.

4.—From 1830-31 to 1840-41—Second Summary Settlement.

5.—From 1841-42 to 1872—Regular Settlement. But in the earlier period it is not uncommon to find years

noted as talisil khám, showing the assessment to have broken down.* Under such circumstances, farms naturally were common, and when they broke down direct management had to be resorted to with very significant results. Thus, in 1824, in an occasional report, 48 villages are mentioned as held in farm; while, in about the same year, 39 villages which had been assessed at Rs. 70,005, when held under

From 1830-31—1832-33 From 1833-34—1842-43 From 1843-44—1873-74 1.905 22. 1,651 This looks as though there had been considerable over-assessment at first; on the

other hand in a village close by, Bagru, a rapid increase was made.

From 1817-18 to 1825-26it paid... ... Rs. 1,659 From 1826-27 to 1833-34 1834-35 2.857 1835-36 21 3,576 From 1836-37 to 1843-44 From 1844-45 onward

^{*} The village of Bidhnauli, for instance, experienced the following vicissitales of assessment: From 1819-20 to 1822-23 1.774 From 1823-24—1824-25 tahsil khám, average 2.307 From 1825-26-1829-30 2.222

Chapter V, B.
Land and Land
Revenue.

The Regular Settlement of Sunipat.

	Jama.	Lambar- dári.	Roed.	Polite.	Tetal
Sunipat Bungar Regular Set-	2,52.131	11,593	. "	***	2,53724
tlement Former Khádar Regular Set-	1,27,891	12.462 .6,545	2,618 	6,551 	2.70.829 1.33,315
1 tlement	1.08,040	5,394	1,135	3.921	1,12,523
CHANGE ON TOTAL TANSIL	-22,710	+718	+3,753	+10,453	-7,761

Mr. Edmonstone considered these reductions necessary. "It was ascertained," says he speaking more particularly of the Khádzr, "that the greatest difficulty had been invariably experienced in "realizing the demands of Government; that, notwithstanding strenutions and well sustained efforts, the district officers and their subordinates had been baffled; and that balances had been frequent and large"

Its working.

Relief was sufficiently given only in the Khadar—the assessment there with one or two exceptions, for which there are especial reasons, was moderate, and its results has been a success. The Bingar assessment was too high; that is, for a continuance. The soil then must have been still in its first burst of glorious fruitfulness under canal inigation. The sight of a good Bangar village then must indeed have been one to inspire confidence; the shor was a very imperfectly understood evil, and its power of expansion could not be foreseen. So the heavy rates of Rs. 3-2 and Rs. 1-10 were levied on the nahri and barani lands with confidence, and the Settlement Officer was able to predict "a speedy and perfect restoration of the parganal "(Bangar) to that state of prosperity which has hitherto distinguished "it." These expectations were partly realized. The palmy days of the Bangar were probably the first ten years of the Regular Settlement. Enormous irrigation was carried on, and as yet it had not made its slowly, but surely working result felt. As years went en however, the calamity became apparent, and the series of reductions began, which in all amount to nearly 23,000 rupees.*

After this there were no more reductions, doubtless because the end of the Settlement term was drawing near. Meanwhile the Khádar was going on favourably; there seems reasons to believe that throughout the thirty years of Settlement its development has been steady and decided. Like the "happy country" of classic reference, its annals are a blank, or nearly so; the total balances being Rs. 2,942, an insignificant amount which remained unpaid on the one or two villages which by some oversight had remained heavily burdened, and even these came short only in the bad vears, 1860-63. The balances in the Bángar too were very insignificant, Rs. 1,456; but there was an ever increasing and much more destructive loss than that of money going on, the effect of which is only now seen. The results of the Settlement working may thus be summed up. For the Bángar, bad, because the ground and the men cultivating it are not in so good condition as at the beginning.

^{*} There was a recovery in 1872 of 1,043 rapees, levied on some that in Thank Khard, renovated by canal-silting—a most interesting and preity successful experiment.

Chapter V, B. Land and Land Revenue.

Bailabgarb. Emly Satlements.

ment of these was made for Rs. 1,55,701 for one year; then one a second of three years at Rs. 1,21,440; and then one for seven year at Rs. 99,212. In a manuscript report by Mr. Cooper, Depty Commissioner of Delhi, of 1861, it is said:—

"The parganah come under attachment in September 1807. It withstanding rebellion abroad, and she agitation and turned arread Balk agriculture went on with characteristic indifference to political strik and the crops sown in June and July of 1857 were peacefully respect in Order. What is more, the heavy instalment of revenue of the deposed eliminary as promptly paid up to to the last pie. A Summary Sendemant was denoted upon the average of ten years' revenue collections asserting to the Rája's accounts, on a total of Rs. 1,68,151-8-0."

This jama referred to 134 villages, eight of which had been silvequently transferred to Gurgãon and Bulandshahr. Mr. Cooper gree on to observe:—

"As might have been expected, the late chiefs collections were my heavy. In the year 1895 he had alsolately laid a tex of Re. 197,000. The usual consequence ensued; half the villagers deserted, and the samed chieftain rock-rented the remainder. The smallest amount, in a very hal season, was Rs. 1,26,000. In such a year, one-half would make our system, have been collected. The assessment now supprisonal is Rs. 122,522. The calculations were thus:—

Tire year areage	43.		,	1,67,255
12 years do.	***	***	***	1.70,228
Summery Settlement	***	***	***	1,64,525
By rates	-	***	***	1,52,5/2
Exten Appletant's prop	25215	***	***	1,72,712
Revised เอร์ ธเอสโรลัย			***	1,500,550

"The reduction on the Sammery Settlement amounts to usual At 40,000. The result is a happy mean between the heartly assessed souther parganah, and the very light rates of the adjoining parganah Gregation.

The seven years' Settlement was made by Bane Lin The other eight villages, not regularly settled, were jugits. Of the 143 villages of Regular Settlement:—

No. Wood gives the summary form as ___ Bs. 161380

As the form stood before the Mutiny ____ 92.90

The demand before revision of ____ 2231 indices

after the Hutiny a reduction of ____ after

Among these 149 tillages, must be reckored those of the parganah Pali-Pakal. This parganah (see printed report of storm 1841 by G. Barnes) was, at the conquest of Deini, given "by General" Lord Lake to the Raja of Ballabgarh, for the purpose of deining "the expenses of a police establishment to pairol the real barner. "Delhi and Palwal, which at that time was lined on either side of dense jungle, and infested with thieves. The original grant was inferred for life; but, on the application of the Resident of Delhi his "parganah remained in the possession of the Ballabgarh and "the death of Kanwar Raj Singh in 1832, A.D. On its lapse the "parganah comprised 43 tillages, of which 18 were extremally from the main body of the parganah, and comprised is lated in within the limits of the adjacent division." Twenty-five of line of were kept in the parganah by Mr. Barnes, together with two from

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land Revenue.

Principles of assessment.

Settlement operations were conducted under the Land Revenue Act, XXXIII, of 1871 which came into force on January 1st, 1872 and the rules published by the Local Government in accordance therewith; the instructions for assessment were as follows:—

"The general principle of assessment to be followed is that the Government demand for land revenue shall not exceed the estimated value of half the net produce of an estate, or in other words one-half the share of the produce of an estate ordinarily receivable by the landlord either in money or kind. In applying this principle in the case of the district above named, where produce rents prevail, special attention should be given by the Settlement Officer to produce estimates.

"In estimating the land revenue demand, the Settlement Officer will take into consideration all circumstances directly or indirectly learns upon the assessment, such as rent rates where money rates exist, the habits and character of the people, the proximity of marts for the disposal of produce, facilities of communication, the incidence of past assessment, the existence of profits from grazing and the like. These and other considerations must be allowed their weight.

"The gross assessments for each Settlement Circle having been framed by the Settlement Officer on the principles above indicated, revenue rates on soils may be deduced therefrom, and the proposed gross assessment, together with the proposed revenue rates, must be reported to the Government for preliminary sanction, and will, when sanctioned by the Local Government, form the basis of assessment of particular estates in the circle; but in the assessment to be ultimately adopted full consideration must be given to the special circumstances for each estate. The principle laid down in Rule I is to be observed in the assessment in each ease."

Officers of the Settlement.

The charge of the Settlement, as well as that of Karnal and Gurgáon, was entrusted to Mr. Oswald Wood, who remained in charge of the Delhi Settlement till November 3rd, 1877, when he gave over to Mr. Channing. After this Mr. Channing held office for a short time, with Mr. Wilson as 'Assistant'; and, on January 10th, 1878, Mr. Maconachie took over from the latter who had been in temporary charge. Mr. Maconachie brought operations to a close in 1880 and reported upon them in the same year.

Distribution of Ballabgarh villages by circles.

The area is 385 square miles with 283 villages. Extreme length 30, and breadth 20 miles. The assessment circles were six; and are described by Mr. Maconachie in his report in great detail.

IKhádar Bángar		•••	7	6 villages.
II.—Bángar	•••	***	٠ الم	- "
III.—Dahri Sailabá	***	***	* 2	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
IV.—Zerkobí	.,.	•••	3	- "
V.—Khandrát	•••	***	33	, ''
VI.—Kohi	***	***	### #J	-), -
		TOTAL.	28	3 villages.

General facts bearing on the assessment. The incidence of the revenue of the expired Settlement was a rule, distinctively light; and the increase of cultivation afford d an obvious presumption that a considerable increase of revenue was to be expected. This presumption was strengthened by the facts of the undoubted general development of the country; the improves

CHAP. V .- ADMINISTRATION AND FINANCE

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land Revenue.

Assessment circles of Delhi tahall.

feel it. But unless this calamity occurs to a marked degree, there there there there there is no difficulty in collecting the revenue."

Some changes were made in the number of villages in Debi tabsil during Settlement, which are detailed in Chapter II. The number of villages now is 288, divided into the following assessment circles:—

I.—Khádar Bángar		•••	•••	43 -	villages.
II.—Bángar	***	***	***	63	n
III.—Dahrí Szilábá IV.—Zerkohí	***	***	***	73	71
V.—Khandrát	***	•••	•1•	39 17	27
VI.—Kohi	•••	***	***	22	77 77
. To	TAL		•	253	villages.

The area of the tahsil is 425 square miles, and the greated length and breadth are nearly equal at 25 miles, the average length 22 and breadth 19. A minute description of the several circles will be found in the Settlement Report.

Revenue rates.

The rates sanctioned for the several circles were as follows:-

			· IPPI	SATED.	Usizzigatio		
			By well	Dahri.	Dakar, Rausil	Bid:	
Khádar Bángar Bángar Dahri Zerkohi Kobi Khandrát	400 400 400 400 400 400	900 920 000 000 000	Rs. As. P. 3 4 0 3 0 0 3 0 0 2 12 0 2 4 0 4 0 0	Rs. As. P. 1 14 0 2 0 0 2 8 0 3 2 0 2 0 0 2 0 0	Ps. As. P. 1 8 0 1 8 0 1 6 0 1 2 0 0 15 0 1 12 0	Ps. As. P. 0 11 0 0 12 0 0 12 0 0 12 0 0 12 0 1 0 0	

Assessment

The results of the application of the rates are given below, together with the produce estimate, and the actual jama obtained by working out the detailed assessments:—

, CHAE	.	Average of five years 1872-7376-77.	Produce estimates.	Jama at Commis- sion-r's rates.	Jama at sanctioned rates.	Jeme 17. nomini
Bángar Dahrí Zerkohi Kohi Khandrát	Total	Rs. 23.634 1,63,552 52,477 22,114 11.322 8,937 3,18,543	Rs. 25,927 1,43,059 1,14,254 25,463 14,357 12,402 3,33,421	Ps. 19.584 1,85.559 24.613 25.692 13.333 13.150 3,54,437	Bs. 19.257* 1,12,454* 91,57** 25,025 13.327 11.612 2,78.245	21. 27. 27. 27. 27. 27. 27. 27. 27. 27. 27

^{*}That is at dry rates, not including owner's rate as in the old jama. The last ten year's average gives Rs. 48,158 for owner's rate for the takeft. The amount of ultimate jama is Rs. 2,75,324; the initial jama is Rs. 2,75,552, allowing Rs. 772 as deferred revenue on protective leases. This is reconciled with the amount for here by making the following allowances:—Add to that amount Rs. 1866 in

Land and Land Revenue. up from the south this boundary lies very near the line of the old imperial road; in the upper half it lies more to the west of that line. The Khadar has 110 villages, the Bangar, 129. Real, but more minute, differences may be shown by drawing irregular lines from north to south beginning at the east, and these variations are fully described in Mr. Maconachie's Settlement Report.

Development since Regular Settlement.

Since Settlement there has been a noticeable increase of barren in the Bángar chak from 20,144 acres to 22,687, and the latter figures are far below the truth. A still more serious point is that a considerable proportion of this waste is new, that is to say, the land now under cultivation was much of it formerly uncultivated, and sometimes considered unculturable. In place of this, land has fallen out of cultivation, as really barren through shor. So that the character of the soil available for expansion of cultivation has deteriorated, and is deteriorating more than might be imagined from the area statistics. The increase in the Khadar cultivated area would seem to have been made pretty equally from the "culturable" and the "unculturable" land. If not, a large extent of the formerly so-called "unculturable" has now been put down as "culturable." Probably both of these changes have taken place. The changes in cultivation and in irrigation may be summarised as follows:—

	Cultivated.	Onltivated. Uncultivated Uncultivated unculturable.		Irrigated.
Bángar Khádar	-17 (01 per cent.) +19,643 (38 per cent.)	-2.040 (7.4 per cent.] -9,412 (19 per cent.)	+2,543 (12 per cent.) -8,328 (40 per cent.)	-4,653 (34 per cent.) -455 (1 per cent.)

The irrigated area does not include the canal irrigation, so that the falling off in the Bángar is not strange. The figures of the Khádar area are misleading. There has been no doubt an increase in the permanent means of irrigation; the mode of calculation must have been different; 1,509 new pakka wells have been sunk here. In the canal area there is a decrease of 13,495 acres, but this too is at least partly nominal. The last figures are those of the year of measurement, when irrigation was under the average.

The annual average for thirty years is 54,354 acres. The markets for Sunipat produce are, and indeed for a long period have been, good. The great population of Delhi is a valuable oulet for all kinds of grain and pulse, while Mirath on the other side of the Jamná takes a great deal of sugarcane, the most valuable of all crops. The general expansion of population has improved the market, and the same may be said of the improvements in road communications. There is the Grand Trunk Road, an inestimable boon for the heavy traffic, and the cross roads, though far enough from being what they ought to be, are considerably better than they were in 1842. Prices too have risen, and this rise is to some extent one in value as well as in price. In some crops the rising tendency has been uniform, as in the case of the important staples, sugarcane and wheat, gram, maize and bajra. For others the highest price was reached in the quinquennial period 1864 to 1869, which included the famine year 1868. It is not likely that the staples will fall to their old prices. Especially favourable

	-	1,2	منتذ
		-	
Leni	====		<u> </u>

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of beganning the orders rate from the undergraine. If it would be sur yorel that the everage inligation of the last ten year. All le maintained unger for ven ederen' gre reefly of the recition of resemblan in the tolet rolf de andurese on the riche of Re II.463. In this supplifie de an likely to describing and it would be a salaming for the contribing and (therefore) evenually for Government if it it. This point is I believe appear upon by all departments, and has indeed been recognised efficiely in the Government frameling, which called in opinion as in the ken way it resultaing indgalor in the samil villages. Thy ordina then re ai al i de de dag i padó á eseme vi i itali inius ine somindier to take less water, mi fini til it is sen dow for they are influenced thus it would be gremature to take other steps. Should It prove to be the sees that the exploitment this it per iim now to take mids less ruber than lithers, even mider the emplition of a secrete in the ymodanhoa of life estate, then it seems no me the old assessment samus self-oundermed, for it is shown that a forced and enhancing speem of agriculture has desu pursued as decessur to make posifika chough why temporarily possible, the payment of the Government sevence. And I like as said before, limbe doubt than in a considerable degree, this vill happen. empert that for a few years there will be a large decrease in the yearly area of omal infection. Then there will be a kind of re-action and more water will be ecked for. I do not edrise ther all the requests of the caminadre then be greated : but I do hope that the Irrigation Department will be able to hear the circle which a recurrence to infraince under such circumsumes unlike rai on idea energements in other runs for the supply of veien. I showely hope that the mere fact of having once given up water will not it fissifies considered a sufficient reason for refusing it altogether attenuals. The

Villages assessed at more than a "time dry rates assessment."

"In his Settlement Sevetery's No. They of 7th June 1850, the Fineral Commissioner called for a list of those villages, which from the high rate of the incidence of their new assessment, might be thought to be read at more than a true dry rates jama. A list was also called for of the village which, owing to exceptional and (it is to be hoped) temporary swamping and bad drainage, are now rated at something less than a true dry assessment. For the latter it will be provided that revision of the jama if necessary in the interests of Government shall take place after periods of five years. In my reply to this I stated that in the Delm taked no villages need he noticed prominently in this way as being assessed at higher than a true dry rate there are some indeed near Delhi, such as Azadovu, Nimri, dee, with a light rate of incidence, but I think it almost certain that if small infigurion were decisively diminished they would sink wells, and if they did they would probably be as well off as at present.

metter is of extreme importance: It is periods the furning point which will desire the question of prosperity or the reverse for the great doily of mani-

villages throughout the district.

"For Sunipat I mentioned four villages, Abridia, Balli Kribbur, Pughthalla and Mohana as partially dependent on canal irrigation for their Chapter V, B.

Land and Land Revenue.

The results of the new assessments.

taken at the estimate formed from the average of the past ten years, but the actual amount may be expected to be considerably less, owing to the restriction of irrigation which it is to be hoped the people will themselves bring about, and which the new assessment was intended to encourage. This statement includes the assessments of gardens and resumed máfis, and the like; the amount here shown is, in fact, the full ultimate demand for the new assessment, except as regards the owner's rate.

Statement showing the results of revision of land revenue assessment in Delhi during the recently concluded Settlement.

Assessment Circl	E.	Old jana avorage domand of the last* five years of ex- pired settlement.	Rorenuo ratos on revisod monsurements.	Jama announced.	Jama as rectuced in appeal and review, and incroused by assessment of gardens and resumed miss. &c.	Estimaled owner's rate.	Estimated total.	Estimated incroase of demand.
BALLABGARH TANS	Œ,							
Khádar Bångar Bángar Dahri Sailába Zerkohí Kohi Khandrát	•••	46.233 79.126 32,592 21,349 13.123 9,889	94.598 33.414 21.743 19.367	94,310 34,025 22,350 17,965	93,903 34.145 22.079 16,403	*****	50,716 93.903 34,146 22,076 16,403 12,644	+14.777 +1,553 +730 +3.280
TOTAL	•••	2,02,312	2,38,614	2,32,130	2,29,889		2,29,888	+27,577
DELHI TAHSIL.								
Khádar Bángar Bángar Dábar Zerkobí Kobí Khandrát	•••	23,834 1 63,562 89,477 22,114 11,323 8,237	19.357 1,19,054 99.570 25.025 13,327 11,612	1,17,805 87,825 25,290 13,120	1,18.427 87.868 25,298 13,132	47.886 214	1,66,313	+2.751 -1.395 $+3.184$ $+1.810$
TOTAL	•••	3,18,546	2.78,915	2,75,471	 2,76,324	48,158	3,24,492	+5,936
SUNIPAT TARSIL.							•	
Rángar Khádar	•••	2,77.265 1,24 043	1,81.982 1,45.930	1,94 685 1,41,815		74,504	1,42.719	+19.676
TOTAL	•••	4,01,308	3.27,912	3,36.500	3.38,267	74,504	4,12,771	+11,463
GRAND TOATAL	•••	9,22,186	8,43,471	8,44,101	†8. 44, 480	1 22,662	9,67,142	+44,976

The kistlandi

The amount entered in the district kistbandí, after deductions on account of ináms to zaildárs and alá lambardárs, is Rs. 8,26,735

For Ballabgarh 1871-72-1875-76.

For Delhi ... } 1872-73-1876-77.

[†] And adding Rs. 2.789 for three villages held in lease we get Rs. 2,79,113 and Rs. 8,47,259 respectively as the jamas here.

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land Revenue.

Assignments of

land-revenue.

authentic copies of those registers, or by the production of the certificates furnished to the holders, must be regarded in the absence of any express limitation by the terms of the grant, as hereditary and transferable. In these cases you will only have to ascertain that the present possession corresponds with the extent of the grant, and that the present holder can show a good title derived from the person whose name was originally entered in the register.

(ii).—Life-grants were to be considered as non-transferable, and persons in wrongful possession were to be ousted, unless for any reason it should seem fit to make recommendation to the contrary.

(iii).—In the case of grants under 10 bighas for religious or charitable purposes, included in the separate register of such grants, it will be necessary only to ascertain that the grants are still applied to such purposes, and that the area entered in the register is not exceeded.

(iv).—Perpetual grants after 1858 were to be considered as not transferable, those made before the Mutiny as transferable.

With regard to the kind of máfi known as half-rates tenures, the instructions were to resume them ordinarily, unless for special reasons it seemed fit to recommend a continuance of the grant in the shape of a maft on part of the land in question. These concessions have almost uniformly been found to require no further continuance, and having come to the natural term of their grant viz., the end of the current Settlement, have been resumed; the area affected being put in with the khálsa area and assessed at

full rates. The results of the máfi investigations are shown in the table on tatement showing the next page. The grants made for good service in the mutiny are separately detailed in the Settlement Report. The aggregate amount of assigned, revenue in the Delhi district is now Rs. 53,189.

Table No. XVII shows the area and income of Government estates; while Table No. XIX shows the area of land acquired by Government for public purposes. Government right, in the 99

villages in which it is sole or part proprietor, extends to 31,381 acres, of which 20,272 are assessable, and on which Rs. 25,540 is the estimated revenue. The property, therefore, is of very considerable importance. Its origin is confiscation at the Mutiny, of the

private property of the king, of lands of máfidár proprietors grossly mutinous, and of the property of the Raja, of Ballabgarh and of the Nawab of Jhajjar.

The private property of the king is called tail. The word is said to be derived from the Turkish, and to mean 'pocket', and may therefore be freely rendered as pocket money, or in a certain sense the peculium of the king. This property he acquired largely under the arrangements for his maintenance and privy purse in 1803, but there is reason to beleive that the Mughal Emperors always had private

land held in direct property. After confiscation at the Mutiny, it appears from the records of the Government office that protracted

Taful.

mafis in Delhi.

Sovernment lands,

forests, &c.

Chapter V, B.
Land and Land
Revenue.
Taint.

enquiry was made as to its value and extent. In his No. 521 of 17th December 1858, the Deputy Commissioner requested instructions on the point whether a title was to be held good, claiming 'freehold tenure' of taiúl property 'by right of gift or purchase from the ex-king or his immediate predecessors.' He also reported resumption of crown lands held under 'deeds granted by persons manifestly incompetent to alienate.' The Commissioner replied that as a rule all grants or sales made subsequent to 1803, when Shah Alam became pensioner of Government, were valid only during the life of the donor. He quoted among other authorities a rule of 1841 to this effect laid down by the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-West Provinces, and confirmed in the same year by the Supreme Government. This view was sanctioned by Secretary to Government's, No. 579 of 26th May 1859, and directions were given for the preparation of a register of taiúl property. This register was submitted (nearly nine years later) by the Deputy Commissioner (Mr. Fitzpatrick) under cover of his No. 144 of 15th April 1868. The Commissioner, in sending it up to Government, remarked that in some cases of sale, Rai Bansi Lal, Extra Assistant Commissioner, acting on the revenue side, had held that all rights were sold, i.e., mass, as well as proprietary rights, that these decisions not being judicial orders might be contested by Government if necessary, but that he considered this unadvisable. The Secretary to Government, in his No. 361 of 11th May 1868, concurred in this. When the register eame down a mistake was made as to the terms of Government orders, and sales were made of a few properties, which, on report for sanction being made, were disallowed by Government and cancelled. Systematic enquiry was directed by an Assistant Commissioner of the district 'who was to summon parties claiming against Government to file proofs of their title, and then to draw up draft plaints for the opinion of the Government advocate.' On this the point of law was referred as to the time of limitation running against Government, in suits to set aside alienations by the king of Delhi of proprietary right in taiúl villages. The Government advocate held that this was 60 years from the date of confiscation of the grant to the king, i.e., from 1857. After further correspondence on points of detail, the Financial Commissioner in his No. 6,598 of 16th September 1872, laid down the principles of investigation, making a division between urban and rural taiúl. For the former a special agency was appointed (Mr. G. L. Smith, Assistant Commissioner, who made his report in May 1876,) and the enquiry into rural taiúl, which included all cases save those properties inside the City of Delhi and the suburbs of Jehannuma and Khandrát kalan, in the towns of Indarpat, Farídábád and Ballabgarh, was made over to the Settlement Department to be carried on in connection with the investigation into máfi tenures. Distinction was drawn between:-

(1.)—The title of Government to proprietary right. (2.)—The right of occupants to hold revenue free.

And it was remarked that these rights were wholly independent of each other. Másis might exist on Government property,

Chapter V, B.

Land and Land Revenue.

Reports on the tenant right.

Eight of the thirty-four villages belonged entirely to Government, and of the twenty-six remaining, eight had the Government rights already separate and distinct from those of the zamindárs; in seventeen they were as yet joint with the zamindars; and in one the rights were partly separate and partly joint.

The report on the separately held villages, and such part of Garhkhera as was already separate, was sent up under Settlement Officer's No. 267 of September 14th 1876, and orders were passed in Government letter No. 578 of 17th May 1877. The main points were-

1.—Rights of occupancy were conceded in 8,846 cases.

> Ditto ditto refused in Ditto ditto remained undecided in

2—Where rights of occupancy now granted affect absentee máfidárs, no such máfidárs should be allowed to contest such rights,

3.—The right now granted is under section 8 of the Tenancy Act; any parties claiming under section 5 can sue to establish the right.

With regard to the sale of the property, it was directed that (a) it should be made in portions or lots, not in a lump, and after reserving any lands necessary for grants; (b) the cultivators should ordinarily be allowed an opportunity of offering for the land sold. The report on the remaining villages, after partition had been made, was submitted in Mr. Maconachie's No. 292 of September 18th, 1879, and on this orders have not been passed. His proposals were to concede occupancy right in 839 bighas, 13 biswás, and refuse it

in 3,530 bighas, 6 biswás.

In 1878, four of the villages reported on by Mr. Wood were sold by auction. This was to raise money to pay Rai Bahadur Umrao Singh for the Fattehpuri Mosque property, which by the orders of His Excellency the Viceroy (Lord Lytton) was restored to The order for these sales the Muhammadan community of Delhi. was communicated under cover of the Punjab Government No. 1,189 of 28th August 1878, and at the auction held in pursuance thereof the prices obtained were, for Ballabgarh Rs. 64,500 sold to Rani-Kishen Kaur of the Rajas family.

Chandaolí Rs. 30,000 10,100 \sold to Amjad Ali of Faridabad. Chirsí 8,000) Tilaurí Bángar "

The sum required was Rs. 1,17,833-6, and the difference was met by appropriating a sum of Rs. 6,000 in deposit from the rent of the shops round the mosque. The surplus was given to the trustees of the building.

ale of four villages.

l'owns, Municipaities and Cantonments.

Delbi city. Do miptica.

gate, by which the whole imite of the Grand Trunk Road passes. The Raiputana Railway passes out of the city by the Kabui gate, while the Chaudui Chauk terminates in the Labore gate. The eastern wall, abutting on the river, contains no gave of any importance.

The Mughal Palace, now the Fort, lies inside the diry, situated in the centre of the castern or riverside. It is 15 miles in directly, and like the dity is surrounded on three sides by lofty stone walls, the fourth side being open to the river-bed, which lies at the level of about 40 feet below the inside surface. The Fort is entered by two gates, the Lahori gate to the west leading to the Chandri Chank, and the Delhi gate to the south, leading to the Faix bazár, and the Delhi gate to the south, leading to the Faix bazár, and the Delhi gate of the city. The interior is now almost entirely cleared of buildings, only a few relies of the old Mughal Palaces being allowed to stand. Their place has been taken by barracks for European troops. Outside, towards the city, a space of 300 years in width has, since the Mutiny, been completely cleared of buildings, which in former days came close up under the Fort walls.

To the south of the Fort, the eastern portion of the city, abutting on the river, and known as Daria Gang, is eccupied by a contonnant" in which are the quarters of a Native Regiment, which, with one wing of a European Regiment, complete the force usually

stationed by way of garrison at Deibi.

Ontside the Foreign its north-cert corner and only connected with it by a bridge, is the massive fort Salimgarh, cremed in the 16th century by Salim Shah; and at this point the East Indian Railway enters the city by a magnificent bridge correst the James. The line passing over Salingurh, and through a corner of the Fort, rius on to the station inside the walls. The line has have been continued for the Rejputions State. Reliway, and after traversing the city, passes through the wall on the operation or north-west side. In the north-cast corner of the city, within the walls, and eluse to the Kashmir gate, lie the Traspry, District Courts, and other cliess; while immediately to the synth of these lie the Church and the Telegraph and Post offices. Thus Daria Gani, the Fort, the public offices and the Railway, form an almost continuous line along the eastern and northern faces of the city; and the angle between them is occupied by the public gardens. The quarter thus complete amounting to nearly half the whole city, presents a comparatively open appearance, and is distinctly marked off and separate from the deaser portion lying to the south-west, and complete by the shops and dwelling-houses of the native population.

A short drive through the Queen's Garden's and amousthe Railway, leads out by the Kashmir or Mori gate into the Civil Lines. Beyond these, on the north-west side of a city, runs a low line of rocky hills, known as the Ridge, which ends on the banks of the Jampa about a mile above the city, and forms a very prominent object from the surrounding country, and is possessed of great historical interest as the vantage ground from which the English

¹ Price to the Markey 1887, the materials was to the north of the Milye about two miles from the city.

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Delhi city. Description.

is obtained from the Ridge, but that is some distance off, and beyond the reach of the poorer inhabitants of the city.

Quite the finest building within the walls is the Jama Masjid built in the reign of Shah Jehan (1629-58), and said to have cost Rs. 10,00,000. It is situated on a rocky eminence a little to the south of the Chandni Chauk, and to the east of the open space cleared round the fort, with three entrances approached by broad flights of steps on the south, east, and north sides. The finest entrance is that on the east side; the other two are to a considerable extent confined by adjacent buildings. It is built of red sandstone, and

is that on the east side; the other two are to a considerable extent confined by adjacent buildings. It is built of red sandstone, and consists of a large quadrangle with the mosque itself on the west side. The mosque itself is of oblong form, 201 feet by 120 feet, and is surmounted by three white marble cupolas with spires of gilded copper. On the north and south sides are two minarets composed of alternate stripes of white marble and red sandstone placed vertically, about 130 feet high, from which extensive views are obtained. Another building of antiquarian interest is the Kála Masjid, near the Turkmán gate, built by Feroz Sháh in 1351. It is now falling into decay, and is mainly of interest as being a remnant of a former city. Inside the fort are to be found

with an octagonal opening at the centre to admit light and ventilation." This is now used as a bazár where supplies are sold for the benefit of the European soldiers of the Fort. On emerging from the Lahore Gate the Díwán-i-Aam, or Hall of Public Audience, comes into view. It is a large hall enclosed at the north, but open on the other three sides, and supported by red sandstone pillars. It is now

used as a canteen. Further on, close to the river, is the 'handsomest building in the Fort, known as the Díwán-i-Khás, or Hall of Private

It is a pavilion of white marble, supported on pillars of

some of the finest buildings in Dehli. The Lahore gate of the Fort, built of red sandstone, leads into a "long and lofty vaulted arcade

the same material, the whole of which are, or were, richly ornamented with flowers of inlaid mosaic work of cornelian and other stones. In former times it must have been far more magnificent than at the present time, but it was greatly despoiled after the break-up of the Mughal Empire about the middle of the 18th century. In this building was formerly set up the Peacock Throne, carried away by Nádir Sháh, the Persian conqueror, in 1739 A.D. Close to the Diwán-i-Khás is the Moti Masjid, also of marble, the private mosque of the Em-

Another building worth mention is the Institute in the Chándni Chauk, a large red brick building, forming three sides of a quadrangle. It is in European style, erected by the Municipal Committee; and is used as a Museum, Town Hall, Darbár Room, and Library for the European residents; and opposite this is the Clock Tower in the centre of the Chándni Chauk, about 130 feet high, with four faces. Other buildings worth a passing notice are the Church, built by Colonel Skinner, the Fattehpuri Masjid, the Delhi College, the Post Office (occupying the building known as the Magazine), the Mor

peror and his family, much injured during the Mutiny.

Serai, and the East Indian Railway Station.

There are several fine gardens, both inside and outside the city.

The Queen's Gardens, in the centre of the town, between the rail-

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their kinsmen, the Kauravas. And then the history loses itself again in the confused chronology of the Puránas.

The city of Indraprastha was built upon the banks of the Jamna, between the more modern Kotila of Firoz Shah and Humayún's tomb, about two miles south of the present site of Delhi. The river has now shifted its course more than a mile eastwards, but its ancient bed can still be traced past the site of Indraprastha. The Nigambod Ghat, near the old Calcutta gate of the present city, is believed to have formed a part of the ancient capital; but with this exception, not a stone of it remains standing. Its name, however, is preserved in that of Indrapat, one of the popular names for the small town and Muhammadan fort of Purána Kila, the site of which must be almost identical with that of the ancient city. Yudisthira, according to the Bhágavata Purána, was succeeded on the throne of Indraprástha by 30 generations of the descendants of his brother Arjuna, until at last the line was extinguished by the usurpation of Visarwa, minister of the last King. Visarwa's family retained the sceptre for 500 years, and was succeeded by a dynasty of 15 Gautamas or Gotamavansas, who were in turn followed by a family bearing the name of Mayura.

This brings the history by one rapid stride down to the middle of the first century B.C., the period at which the name of Delhi first makes its appearance. The city too had spread or been removed some miles further to the south, as far as the site now occupied by Kutb-ud-din's Mosque and the Kutb pillar. General Cunningham would appear to attribute the foundation and name of the new city to a Rájá Dilu, apparently the last of the Mayura dynasty, and identifies it with Ptolemy's Daidalar. The commonest form of the old name is "Dilli." In one place, however, General Cunningham has found it spelt "Dillipur." And there is a tradition extant, which attributes the foundation of the city to Raja Dillípa, the ancestor in the 5th generation of the Pándava brothers. But this tradition may probably be dismissed as an ignorant invention; for Dilli is universally acknowledged to be of much later date than Indraprástha. The most popular tradition, adopted by Ferishta, and accepted as probably correct by General Cunniugham, is that which attributes the city to Rájá Dilu or Dhilu. Dhilu appears to have been the last of his dynasty, and to have been overthrown by a King of the Scythian dynasty, known as that of the Su or Sakas. The Saka conqueror, whose name is variously given as Sukwanti, Sukdat, and Sakaditya, was himself overthrown a few years later by the famous Vikramáditya, the date of whose accession, B.C. 57, is the initial year of the Samvat era.*

From this period Dilli is again lost sight of for several centuries. There is, indeed, a widespread tradition that it was deserted for 792 years. This, however, cannot be accepted without reservation; for in the erection, during the 3rd or 4th century A.D., of the famous iron pillar of Rája Dháva, there is strong evidence that the site was occupied. The erection of this pillar must have been the work of a prince having pretension, at any rate, to great power; for

^{*} General Cunningham places the defeat of the Sakas 135 years later, in A.D.87.

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truth of the Brahman's statement, ordered the pillar to when the foot of it was found wet with the blood of the King. The iron pillar was again raised; but owing to former incredulity, every plan now failed in fixing it firm spite of all his efforts it still remained loose (dhila) in the and this, according to these traditions, is said to have origin of the name of Dhili. Various other forms of the are given, some of which have no reference to a propher bility. Moreover, the name Delhi is undoubtedly older eighth century, and General Cunningham, with some prefers the origin of these traditions to a late period in the former of the Tomáras, when the long duration of their rule have people to compare its stability to that of the iron pillar; an refer the story above related to the reign of Anang Pål II., with inscribed on the shaft with the date of Sambat 1109, or all

The foundation of the Tomara (Tunwar) demasty by better known as Anang Pal, is fixed by General Cunni grounds which he considers "more than usually firm Indian history," to have taken place in 736 A.D. Anang ed Dehli, and he and probably several of his successors, me capital. But the later Rajas of the dynasty are believe resided at Kanoj. In the middle of the 11th century Ar would appear to have been expelled from Kanoj by Cha founder of the Rahtor dynasty of that city, and once n became the Tomára capital. Anang Pál II. rebuilt and a city, surrounding it with a massive fort named Lal Kot,* to of whose walls are still believed to exist in a line of grand that circle the site of the Kuth Minar. This restoration recorded, and its date fixed by an inscription upon Ra pillar—" in Sambat 1109" (corresponding to 1052 A.D.) " peopled Dilli."

Just a century later, during the reign of Anang Pal III. the Tomara line, Delhi was taken by Visala Deva, Choha Ajmír. Anang Pál was left in possession, but only as a trib his daughter married the son or grandson of the conquer this union was born the famous Prithi Raj or Rai Pit became the adopted son of Anang Pál, and on his death su his throne, thus uniting the Tomaras and Chohans under During this reign the fort of Lál Kot was further strengths exterior wall which ran round it northwards from its north-south-east corner, while the old fort rose above the ground and formed a citadel to the new fortification. Prithi Rilast Hindu ruler of Dehli. In 1191 came the first i

† Rai Pithora's fort is 4 miles and 3 furious in circuit. The was be traced for a considerable distance. It appears to have been so height of Lai Kot.

^{*} J. A. S. p. 151. The fort of Iál Kot is of an irregular rout form. 24 miles in circumference. The walls, by General Canninghar ments, are 28 or 30 feet in thickness, having a general height of 60 fe bottom of the ditch, which still exists in very feir order all round the on the south side. About half the main walls are standing as firm a when first built. Three gateways to the west and north are distinct?

The existence of a fort of this name is doubted by Mr. C. J. Campil Asiatic Society of Bengal Vol. 35, Part I, p. 206) whose arguments are supplemented by the author of "The Archæology of Deblin p. 22.

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was probably constructed as a Mazima or Muazzam's tower, from which the call to morning and evening prayer might be heard in ail parts of the town; and it was probably commenced by Kutb-ul-din Aibak from whom it derives its name about the year 1200 A.D. The height of the Minar as it now, stands is 238 feet 1 inch, with a base diameter of .47 3 fect inches, and an upper diameter of nearly nine feet. The shaft is divided into 5 storcys, separated by balconies decorated with ornamental bands. The column is built of red sandstone, of which the lowest is 94 feet 11 inches in height and the highest 22 feet 4 inches, the two together being just equal to half the height of the column. The intermediate storcys are 50 feet 81 inches, 40 feet 31 inches, and 25 feet 4 inches, respectively. these threestoreys, the lowest has semi-circular fluting, the next augular fluting, and the third is a smooth cylinder. The circular shaft of the topmost storey is decorated with ornamental bands of marble and red sandstone; on each storey are numerous inscriptious. plinth is 2 feet in height and is a polygon with 24 sides; and the base of a broken cupola, also 2 feet high, makes up the total of 2381. A spiral staircase of 179 steps leads to the present summit. In 1803 the cupola, which formerly crowned the edifice, was thrown down and the whole pillar seriously injured by an earthquake. It was repaired by Major Robert Smith, who substituted for the fallen cupola, "a flaming Mughal pavilion" utterly out of keeping with the Pathan architecture of the pillar. This was taken down in 1847 or 1848 by order of Lord Harding. The summit is now surrounded by a simple iron railing. At a distance of 425 feet due north from the pillar stands the unfinish Minar of Ala-ud-din, commenced in A.D. 1311, which was intended to double in its proportions the Minar of Kutb-uddin. It reached a height of 87 feet, but at this point building ceased. The site chosen for the great mosque was that already occupied by the iron pillar of Raja Dhava, which forms the centre ornament of the inner courtyard. Round the mosque are scattered the remains of palaces and tombs, forming, as has been said, "the most interesting group of ruins which exists in India, or perhaps in any part of the world." No description, however, can be here attempted. The house of the Slaves retained the throne until 1288, when

it was subverted by Jalal-ud-din Ghilzai (Khilji). The most remarkable monarch of the dynasty thus founded was Ala-ud-din, already alluded to, during whose reign Delhi was twice exposed to attack from invading hordes of Mughals. On the first occasion Ala-ud-din defeated them under the walls. On the second, after encamping for two months in the neighbourhood of the city, they retired without a Relieved from the danngers of this invasion, Ala-ud-din built the fort of Siri or Shahpur, a little to the north of the present town, on the spot where he had entrenched himself to oppose the Mughala, and creeted in it the celebrated palace of the thousand pillars. The house of Ghilzai came to an end in 1321 and was followed by that of Tughlak. Hitherto the Musalman kings had been content with the ancient Hindu capital, altered and adorned to suit their taste, But the new dynasty had a passion for great public works, and one of the first acts of Ghiyas-ud-din, its founder, was to erect a new capital about four miles further to the east, which he called, after his own

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tants." Of the tomb of Ghiásuddin Tughlak the following description occurs in the Archeology of Delhi:

"It is situated in the midst of an artificial lake, fed by the overflowing of the Hauz Shamsi and by a lot of natural drains which flowed into the base of the fort, and which at one time must have formed one of its natural defences. It is surrounded by a pentagonal outwork, which is connected with the fortress by a causeway 600 feet in length, supported on 27 arches. In plan, the tomb is a square of $38\frac{1}{2}$ feet interior, and $61\frac{1}{2}$ feet exterior The outer walls are 381 feet in height to the top of the battlement, with a slope of 2.333 per foot. At this rate the whole slope is 75 feet in 381 feet. The walls at base are 111 feet thick, and at top only 4 feet; but the projecting mouldings of the interior increase the thickness of the wall at the springing of the dome to about 6 or 7 feet or, perhaps more, for I had no means of making measurements so high up. The diameter of the dome is about 34 feet inside and about 44 feet outside, with a height of 20 feet; the dome is of marble, striped with red stone. The whole height of the tomb to the top of the dome is 70 feet, and to the top of the pinnacle (which is made of red stone) about 80 feet. Each of the four sides has a lofty doorway in the middle, 24 feet in height, with a painted horse-shoe arch, fretted on the outer edge. There is a small doorway only 5 feet 10 inches in width, but of the same form, in the middle of the great entrances, the archway being filled with a white marble lattice screen of bold pattern. The decoration of the exterior depends chiefly on difference of colour, which is effected by the free use of bands and borders of white marble on the large sloping surfaces of red stone. The horse-shoe arches are of white marble, and a broad band of the same goes completely round the building at the springing Another broad band of marble in upright slabs, 4 feet in height, goes all round the dome just above its springing. The present effect of this mixture of colour is certainly pleasing, but I believe that much of its beauty is due to the mellowing hand of time which has softened the crude redness of standstone as well as the dazzling whiteness of the marble. The building itself is in very good order." Archæological Reports, Vol. 1p. 653.

Muhammad Tughlak added to the strength of the city by a wall stretching north-east, and enclosing all the suburbs as far as the fortof Siri erected by Ala-ud-dín, and to this quarter of the city he gave the name of Jahán-panáh. By this addition the ancient town attained its utmost growth. But the period of its decline was at hand. For the very next king, Fíroz Sháh Tughlak, transferred the seat of government to a new town, which he founded several miles to the north of the Kutb, and called after his own name, Fírozábád. The buildings connected with this city appear to have extended from Húmáyun's tomb on the south to the ridge beyond the modern city on the north. The ruins, however, are very imperfect, and it is impossible to trace the exact form even of its citadel or palace, which lay just outside the southern gate of the modern city. The principal remains of this city are the Kale Masjid near the Turcoman gate, and Fíroz Sháh's fort near the Delhi gate. In the midst of its ruins stand the famous pillar of Asoka, better known as Firoz Shah's láth, fixed upon the summit of the three-storeyed building known as Fíroz Sháh's kotila. The láth was brought by Fíroz Sháh from a spot near Khizrábád, on the Jamna, near the place where that river issues

like his predecessors, the Lodis, he seems to have made his principal

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residence. In consequence probably of this desertion, the city of Firezabad seems never to have recovered after its overthrow by Tamerlane in 1398, and when Humávún, son of Bábar, determined to make Delhi his residence, he found it necessary to build or resione the fort of Purana Kila or Indrapat,* on the side of the arrient Indraprástha. Humáyún called his new fort Dín-panáh. That name, however, soon fell out of use, and the fort is ordinarily known as Purána Kila. In 1540 Humáyún was expelled by Sher Shah, and this monarch entirely rebuilt the city, enclosing and fortifying it with a new wall. Delhi Sher Shah, as the renovated town was called extended from where Humáyún's tomb now is, to the citadel of Firoz Tughlak already described as just outside the southern gate of the present city; and Humayun's fort of Din-panah, further strengthened, formed its citadel. The materials for this work were chiefly taken from Ala-ud-din's fort of Siri, and from other buildings of the ancient city. A gate of Delhi Sher Shah, called originally the Kábali Darwáza, but commonly known by the name of Lal Darwáza, or red gate, is now standing, a striking but isolated building, on the road side opposite the present jail. Another work of this time was Salimgarh, the fort already alluded to as situated at the north-east corner of the palace at the point where the East Indian Railway crosses the Jamna into the city. It was erected by Salim Shah, son of Sher Shah, in 1546.

In 1555 Humáyún regained the throne, but died within six months after his success. He was succeeded by his son, the illustrious Akbar, who ascended the throne early in 1556. During this reign and that of Jahángír, nothing of local interest is recorded: the Emperors principally resided at Agra or Lahore, while Delhi seems once more to have fallen into decay. But between the years 1638 and 1658; king Sháh Jahán once more rebuilt it almost in its present form, and his city, still known as Sháhjahánábád, is, with a few trifling exceptions, the city of modern days. It is to Sháh Jahán also that Delhi is indebted for the great mosque, called the Jáma Masjid, and for the restoration of the present Western Jamna Canal. Delhi, thus restored, was the capital of the renowned Aurangzeb (Alamgir I), the greatest of the Mughal kings, and during his reign, from 1658 to 1707, was uniformly prosperous.

From the death of Aurangzeb began the rapid decline of the Mughal Empire, and in the struggles of the ensuing century. Delhi suffered much and often. Bahádur Sháh, Jahándár Sháh and Farokhsher followed each other on the throne in quick succession. Farokhsher was succeeded 1719 by Muhammad Sháh, during whose reign Delhi saw under her walls for the first time the standards of the Mahratta destined afterwards to play such an important part in her history. Three years later, in 1729, the Persian Nádir Sháh

His mother however was a Mughal. The reason for this strange perversion of names, seems to be that the Indians call all Northern Musalmans, except the Afghans, Mughals. They now apply the term particularly to the Persians.

* General Cunningham believes that he built it entirely.

i The diedel or Palace, now known as the Fort, was begun in 1685; and the outer walls ten years inter.

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Holkar retreated, and from this date a new epoch in the history of Delhi began. The Palace remained under the immediate rule of lities and Canton the king, but the city, together with the Delhi territory, passed under British Administration, and enjoyed a long immunity from war and bloodshed. For fifty-three years nothing occurred to break the monotony of prosperity and peace. At length, however, the calm was rudely broken in upon by the stormy events of 1857.

The Mutiny.

For some months during the earlier portion of the year an uneasy presentiment is said to have prevailed among all classes of native society in Delhi, and a vague feeling of excitement in reference to some expected event, a feeling which was eagerly fomented by intrigues in the Palace, and was fed by false or exaggerated reportsof the Persian war. At length the storm burst. On the evening of May 10th, occurred the Mutiny at Mirath, and on the morning of the 11th, the mutinous troopers had crossed the Jamna and stood clamouring for admittance below the Palace wall. The scene that followed has been too often described to need a minute relation here. Finding the Calcutta gate* which was nearest to the river crossing closed, the troopers doubled back towards the south, and found an entrance at the Ráighat gate in Dariá Ganj. Meanwhile, Captain Douglas, Commandant of the Palace Guards, Mr. Fraser, the Commissioner, and Mr. Hutchinson, Collector, had met at the Calcutta gate. On the approach of the mutineers from within, they escaped to the Lahore gate of the Palace and there were murdered. The Palace was occupied by crowds of troops and the whole city thrown into a ferment of confusion. At this time almost the whole civil and non-official residents of the station had their houses within the city wall, and fell an easy prey to the insurgents. The troopers from Mirath, joined by the roughs of the city, carried murder and rapine into every house. Soon too the infantry from Mirath began to arrive, and by 8 o'clock the mutineers were sole masters of every yard within the city walls, except the magazine and the main-guard just within the Kashmir gate.

Meanwhile the news reached the cantonment beyond the ridge that overlooks the city. The troops in the station were entirely native, three regiments of native infantry, the 38th, the 54th, and the 74th, and a battery of native artillery. The 54th were marched promptly down to the Kashmir gate and the main-guard, where a detatchment of the 38th was posted. These had already in their hearts cast in their lot with the mutineers, who were then appearing on the scene. Ordered to fire on the insurgents, they responded only by insulting sneers. Nor was the conduct of the 54th much better. Several European officers were cut down either by the insurgent troopers or by men of their own regiments, and when the artillery officers entered the gate a few minutes later, they found the traces of the conflict in the dead bodies of their comrades. insurgents, alarmed by the report of the approach of guns, had dispersed followed by the greater portion of the 54th. The guns were planted before the main-guard, and two companies of the 54th,

^{*} The old Calcutta gate no longer exists. It was destroyed in the construction of the Railway. .

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The Mutiny,

A sweeper who helped to dispose of the corpses, afterwards deposed that there were but five or six men among them; the rest were Towns, Municipathat there were but five or six men among them; the rest were lities and Canton women and children. The bodies were heaped upon a cart, borne to the banks of the Jamna, and thrown into the river.

A short month later, on June 8th, was fought the battle of Badli-ki-Sarai, and that same evening the avenging British force, sweeping the mutineers from their old cantonment and the Sabzi Mandi Bázár, encamped upon the ridge that overlooks the city. It would be foreign to the scope of the present account to trace the history of the ensuing siege, which has been already narrated by a hundred pens. For three long fiery months it dragged on, the 'Delhi Field Force' besieged upon the ridge rather than besieging, and the communication between the city and outside not being cut off except on the north. At length, the heavy guns arriving, it was determined to carry the city by assault. The first of the heavy batteries opened fire on September 8th, and on the morning of the 14th the British force, 7,000 men in all, advanced to storm the walls defended by 60,000 mutineers. The four points of attack were the Kashmír Bastion, the Water Bastion, the Kashmir Gate and the Lahore Gate.

The attacking force was divided into four columns with a reserve. The first two columns were to storm the breach in the Kashmír Bastion and the Water Bastion, the third to blow open the Kashmír Gate, and the fourth to clear the suburbs to the west of the city, and enter by the Lahore Gate. In advance of all were the 60th Rifles, concealed in the brushwood, stretching up to within musket shot of the walls, ready to keep down the fire of the rebels, and cover the advance of columns. On September 14th, at 3 A.M., the columns had fallen in at Ludlow Castle, but during the night, the breaches had been filled with sand-bags, and the columns were obliged to wait till the fire from the guns could once more clear the way. The troops lay down under shelter, and the advance of the rifles to the front with a cheer, was to be the signal for the cessation of the fire from the batteries, and the assault of the columns.

The following is Mr. Cooper's account of what ensued: "At the head of the third column stood the gallant exploding party consisting of Lieutenants Salkeld and Home of the Engineers, Sergeants Carmichael, Burgess and Smith of the Bengal Sappers, Bugler Hawthorne of the 52nd L. I. (who accompanied the party to sound the advance when the gate was blown in), and eight native Sappers, under Havildar Madhu, to carry the bags. At the edge of the cover, the powder-bags had been transferred to the European soldiers. Here stood this heroic little band, forming a forlorn hope, feeling themselves doomed to almost certain death, waiting in almost agonising suspense for the appointed signal. It came; the firing suddenly ceased, the cheer of the Rifles rang through the air, out moved Home with four soldiers, each carrying a bag of powder on his head; close behind him came Salkeld, portfire in hand, with four more soldiers similarly laden, while-a short distance behind the storming party, 150 strong, consisting of-

⁵⁰ H.M. 52nd L. I.,

⁵⁰ Kumaon Battalion, 59 First Punjab Infantry under Captain Bailey,

Chapter VI Towns, Municipa-

General John Nicholson. He, the life and soul of the assault, had head ed the first column of attack which stormed the Kashmir Bastion Reforming his men, he entered the narrow lane behind the walls and lities and Cantonswept along inside, past the Mori and Kabul Gates: clearing the

ments. The Mutiny.

rebel forces from the walls. He was approaching the Lahore Gate when fire was opened upon his column from the Burn Bastion, and from a breastwork planted across the lane. Leading on this men to attack the breastwork, he fell mortally wounded by a musket ball. He was carried to the rear, his column falling back to the Kabul Gate, but he lived to hear of the complete success of the whole attack. After lingering on for a few days he breathed his last.

The King and several members of the Royal Family, on the flight of the mutineers, took refuge at Húmáyún's tomb. Here, on September 21st, they surrendered to Major Hodson, who with his own hand, in order to avoid a rescue, shot the young princes down. The King, Bahadur Shah, was brought into Delhi and tried before a Military Commission. He was found guilty of encouraging and abetting acts of rebellion and murder, and being saved from a severer penalty by a guarantee of his life which he had received from Major Hodson at the time of his surrender, he was sentenced to perpetual banishment. He was removed to Rangoon, where he died, a pensioner of the British Government, on October 7th, 1862 Delhi, thus reconquered, remained for some time under mili-

tary authority, and owing to the murders of several European soldiers who straggled from the lines, the whole population was shortly afterwards expelled. The order of expulsion was afterwards modified; Hindus being generally admitted, but Muhammadans still rigorously excluded. This was the state of affairs when, on January 11th, 1858, the city-was made over to the Civil authorities. In July 1858, Civil Courts were re-opened and the city gradually resumed its wonted appearance. But even to the present day, the shattered walls of the Kashmir Gate and the bastions of the northern face of the city bear visible testimony to the severity of the cannonade of September 1857. The cantonments were constituted in 1859. Since then, the only events of importance that have occurred at Delhi have been the visit of the Prince of Wales in 1876, and the Imperial proclamation in 1877, when all the feudatories of the Indian Empire were assem-

bled at the Mughal capital of India. Objects of interest in the neighbour-

hood.

Any description of Delhi would be incomplete without a passing notice of some of the very interesting objects in the vicinity of the town.*

Of these the foremost is the Kuth Minar, which has been already described a few pages back. Within a few yards of the Kutb is the celebrated iron pillar already described. On the other side of the Kutb is the Alai Darwaza, or gate of Ala-ud-din. Khilji. It was built about 1310 A.D. The building is a square of 341 feet inside, and 561 feet outside; the walls being 11 feet thick; from the inner floor to the domed ceiling it is about

⁴⁷ feet high. The corners are ornamented with a series of arched * For bibliography, see page 185.

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Towns, Municipalities and Cantonments.

Objects of interest in the neighbourhood. the projector and the disturbed state of the Empire. What was finished has been seriously injured by the Jats and others, but even now proves considerable astronomical skill on the part of the projector. The great equatorial dial is still nearly perfect, but the gnomon and the periphery of the circle on which the degrees are marked have been injured in several places. The length of the gnomon is 118 feet, base 104, and perpendicular 56. Besides this gnomon there are two others on a smaller scale, all three being connected by a wall on which is described a graduated semicircle for measuring the altitude of objects lying due east or west from hence. In a southerly direction from the great equatorial dial are two buildings exactly alike, both for observing the altitude and azimuth of the stars, each apparently intended to correct the other. The whole collection of instruments shows astronomical knowledge of a very high order.

The road to Delhi enters the town sideways at the Lahore gate. Outside the Delhi gate of the city near the Mathrah road is a tall column known as Fíroz Sháh's Lát. It was formerly surrounded by the city of Fírozábád, but that city is merely a ruin without inhabitants. The pillar is a sandstone monolith placed on a pyramidal building of rubble stone. It is 42 feet high, of which 35 feet towards the summit are polished, and the rest is rough. The upper diameter is 25 inches, and lower 38 inches. The colour of the stone is pale pink, and it resem-The chief point of interest about this monolith is bles dark quartz. that the inscription on it forms part of the ediets of Asoka, king of Magadha, by which he proclaimed his talents to the world. pillar forms one of a series erected by him from Kabul to Orissa. There is also another pillar on the ridge inscribed with one of the ediets of king Asoka. He lived about 250 B.C. Further along the Mathrah road is Purána Kila or Indrapat, supposed to be the site of the most ancient site of Delhi.

Still further along the same road is the tomb of Humáyún which was finished in 1865 at a cost of 15 lakhs of rupees. Besides the tomb of Humáyún himself, this mausoleum contains the graves of many others of the house of Timour. This tomb of the first hereditary monarch of the Mughal race may be remembered as being the spot where Bahádur Sháh, the last Mughal Emperor of Delhi, surrendered himself to the British Government after the capture of Delhi during the Mutiny, and in sight of which his sons and nephew were summarily executed for murder and treason by Hodson.

The tomb of Humáyún stands near the old bed of the Jamna in the centre of a high-walled enclosure. On the west and south are two lofty tower-like gateways, which add much to the grandeur of the building. The gateways are built of grey stone ornamented with bands of red stone and marble. In the centre of the garden is a platform 5 feet high and 100 yards square, surmounted by a second platform 20 feet high and 85 yards square. In the centre of the floor of the upper platform are the graves of Húmáyún, and of the other Mughal princes just described. Above these graves is erceted the mausoleum, the centre room of which is a square of 45 yards. It is built of red sandstone and is ornamented with marble bands. The form of the main body of the tomb is that of a square with the

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Objects of interest in the neighbourhood.

Further along, the Mathrah road, and somewhat to the right of it going from Delhi, is the fort and city of Tughlakábád. It was finished in 1323. It is in the shape of a half hexagon, the three sides being about 2 mile each in length and the base 11 miles. The circuit of the city is about 4 miles. The fort stands on a rocky height surrounded by ravines. The walls of the fort are built of massive blocks of stone of great thickness. The rock on the southern face is scarped, and the walls above rise to a mean height of 40 In the south-west angle is the citadel, occupying about i of the area of the fort. It contains the ruins of a large palace. The citadel is strongly defended by ranges of towers and bastions, within which were the private apartments of the Emperor. The fort of Tughlakábád has 13 gates, and the citadel 3 inner gates. It contains seven tanks for water, and three báolis still in good order. There are apartments underground at a depth of from 30 to 80 feet, probably for use in the hot weather. The upper part of the Fort is full of ruined houses, while the lower part seems never to have been fully inhabited. Tughlakábád formerly belonged to the Rájá of Ballabgarh, but was annexed owing to the Rájá's participation in the Mutiny. It is now an insignificant Gujar village, owing all. its importance to the grandeur of its ruins. There is a metalled road from here to the Kutab.

Such is a short sketch of some of the principal monuments To describe all at length would require a separate around Delhi. volume, but the most important have been touched upon. For this purpose great assistance has been received from Carr Stephen's book, Archæology of Delhi, in which a full account will be found of every

monument of interest around Delhi.

The Municipality of Delhi was first constituted in 1863. It Taxation, trade. &c. is now a Municipality of the first class. The Committee consists of the Deputy Commissioner as president, with five other official members, including the Vice-President, and 15 non-official members. The non-official members are appointed by Government on the

nomination of the Deputy Commissioner, subject to the approval of the Commissioner of the division. Table No. XLV shows the income of the Municipality for the last few years, while Table XLVA gives details of manufactures. The income is chiefly derived from octroi, levied at various rates on the value of almost all goods brought within municipal limits, grain and piece-goods being excepted. Certain nazúl property, in the hands of the Municipality, also yield a considerable income.

Delhi is the great commercial centre for the eastern part of the Panjáb, Rájpútána and the neighbouring districts of the North-Western Provinces. An important item of the export trade is leather and hides, and also ghi. Raw cotton is largely collected here, and forwarded to Bombay and Calcutta for exportation to England. Cotton thread is re-imported from Europe and worked up into pagris and dopattas. In the case of European piece-goodsanother very important article of traffic-and European glass and China ware, the process is reversed, Delhi being the most important market for distribution in the north-western parts of India. Beyond the limits of the province, the export dealings of Delhi are

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ments.

Institutions and public buildings.

buildings are the kotwáli, the Commissioner's Office (adjoining his private residence), the district offices, the railway station, telegraph Towns, Municipa- office and post office. The latter occupies a building known as the magazine. There are several excellent shops, the Banks of Bengal and Delhi, and the Northbrook, Great Eastern, and United Service There is a local paper published in English entitled the Punjab Herald. Near the East Indian Railway Station is a building known as the Mor Serai, used partly as a bonded warehouse, and partly as a habitation for poor Europeans. Within the city there are other serais, tahsil offices, a dispensary with several branches, a central police thána with several other thánas, several branch post offices, and a high school. Outside the Ajmir Gate are the police There are a number of schools of various kinds in the city described under the head of education. The public gardens, known as the Kudsia Bágh, are situated just outside the Kashmír Gate, and inside are the Queen's Gardens occupying a considerable space, and giving an appearance of freshness and verdure to Delhi not often met with in a native town. There is nothing especial to remark about the cantonments. In the fort are several handsome buildings, but they are of a period prior to the cantonments, and have been described above.

Population and vital statistics.

The population, as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1875, and 1881 is shown below:—

Limits of Enumeration,	Year of Census.	Persons	Males.	Females.
Whole town {	.1868 1881	1.54,417 1,73,393	83,346 93,163	17.071 80,228
Municipal limits {	1868 1875 1881	1.64,417 1,60,653 1,73,393	•••	•••

It is difficult to ascertain the precise limits within which the enumerations of 1868 and

Town or Suburb.	POPULATION.			
	1969.	1881.		
Delhi City excluding Cantonments Cantonments Pahāri Dhirāj Teliwāra Mughalpurā Sabzi Mandi Pul Mithāi Nabbi Karim Jaisinghpurā Shidāpur Khandrāt kalān Madhoganj Minor Subu rbs Oiril Lines	1,11,053 43,364	1,17,363 3,148 18,141 10,290 5,488 5,393 2,195 2,015 1,843 1,761 1,761 1,762 1,763 1,761 1,763 1,761 1,763 1,761 1,763 1		

1875 were taken; but the details in the margin, which population suburbs, throw some light on The figures for the matter. the population within municipal limits according to the Census of 1868 are taken from the published tables of the Census of 1875; but it was noted at the time that their accuracy was in many cases doubtful. The Deputy

Commissioner wrote as follows in the district report on the Census of 1881 regarding the increase of polulation:-

"The increase in the city and suburbs of Delhi is partly owing to improvement in trade, and partly to the opening of two new lines of Railway, viz., the Sind, Panjab and Delhi Railway, and the Rajputana State

Chapter	VI.

Towns, Municipalities and Cantonments.

Population and vital statistics.

Year.		Bı	RTH RATE	88.	DEATH RATES		
	:	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Female
1868	•••		•••		42	87	47
1869		***	•••		67	63	72
1870.		40	39	41	75	74	73
1871	•••	86	- 87	85	85	83	80
1872 .		. 80	42	36	94	· 91	97
1873	••• [74	39	35	94	88	. 100
1874	•••	83	43	40	77	72	83
1875	••• }	100	53	. 47	94	89	, 99
1876		101	52	49	75	71	80
877	}	108	54	51	91	85	98
1878	· ʃ	83	47	45 .	· 163	163	173
879	}	60	83	29	131	124	140
1880]	78 -	89	36	67.	65	69
881		114	59	54	85	83	88
Average]	, 88	46	43	92	88	96

Najafgarh town.

Nangloi which is the best road. In the latter case there is a metalled road as far as Nangloi, about 10 miles, and the rest is unmetalled. It is accessible with difficulty in the rains, as portions of the road are flooded. The town itself is well wooded, and consists of a collection of native houses with three metalled bázárs, many of the houses in which are built of brick. Two of these bázárs are parallel and the third connecting them forms rather a square than a street.

There is a thána, school-house, and dispensary in the town The thána is an old building, and worth a passing notice. There is an old gateway on the Delhi direct road, which is also a fine building. The Municipal Committee consists of seven members nominated by the Deputy Commissioner with the Commissioner's approval. Its income for the last few years is shown in Table No. XLV, and is principally derived from an octroi tax. The place is really of no importance, and merely happens to be the largest village in the neighbourhood. A metalled road is being made direct between Delhi and Najafgarh, which when finished will no doubt increase its importance. There is a police rest-house at some little distance from the town in the centre of what was formerly a garden. It is used by the district officers. There are very fine ber trees in Najafgarh; their fruit is said to weigh five tolas to a single ber; there is a special family here of Muhammadans, called Mirdhas, who are traditionally measurers of land and crops. They do not get much of this work now, but they claim to have done it in the time of the Muhammadan kings. The population, as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1875, and 1881, is shown below:—

2000, 20:0, 020	<u> </u>			
Limits of Enumeration.	Year of Census.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Whole town {	1869 1881 .	3,768 3,999	1,774 2,049	1,994 1,950
Municipal limits {	1869 1875 1881	3,592 4,309 3,999	444 ***	### ### ### ###

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Sunipat town.

from debris of buildings that have crumbled to decay on this one. site during the town's long life of 3,000 years. In 1866 the villalities and Canton gers, while digging a well from the top of the hill, excavated from a depth of some 70 or 80 feet below the surface a terra-cotta figure of the sun in perfect preservation. General Cunningham. pronounced this image to be at least 1,200 years old. In 1871 a hoard of some 1,200 Greco-Bactrian hemi-drachms were also unearthed at Sunipat. The present town is about one square mile in extent. One part is called the Kot, on top of which stand the thana and tahsil; while the other part is known as the Mashhad, or place of martyrdom, where it is said that Nasir-ud-din met his death at the hands of a Hindu Rája. The population, as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868, 1875, and 1881 is shown below:

Limits of Enumeration		Year of Census.	Persons.	Males.	Females,
Whole town	}	1468 1991	12,176	6,119	6,529 6,629
Municipal limits	{	1864 1876 1691	12,176 13,637 13,077		***

It is difficult to ascertain the precise limits within which the enumerations of 1868 and 1875 were taken. The figures for the population within municipal limits according to the Census of 1868 are taken from the published tables of the Census of 1875; but it was noted at the time that their accuracy was in many cases doubt-The Deputy Commissioner in the District Report on the Census of 1881 accounts for the decrease of population by the absence of several large wedding-parties on the night of the last Census. The constitution of the population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table XX of the Census Report of 1881. The annual birth and death rates per mille of population since 1868 are given below, the basis of calculation being in every case the figures of the most recent Census:--

Year.	1	BIRTH RATE	5.	DEATH RATES.			
	Persons.	Mules.	Females.	Persons,	Males	Famales	
1868				8	9	8	
1000	***	•••		14	16	12 33 28 26 35 25 29 21 21	
	äi	31	:8	40	42	38	
	33	37	28	32	35	28	
1871	23	18	14	30	35 35	26	
1872		16	16	36	36	35	
1873	26	20	15	40	45	35	
1874	34	20	15	30	32	28	
1875	35	15	11	27	26	29	
1876	26		35	23	26 25	21	
1877	31	18		25	26	51	
1878	31	18	13	43	45	. 40	
1879	. 23	12	10	25	24	20	
1880	27	13	14	26	26	20 25	
1881	38	. 21	17		33	28	
Average	30	17	15	30	0.0	1	

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ments.

"which formerly passed through it, its trade has suffered, and the "place is less frequented than formerly." The constitution of the Towns, Municipa-population by religion and the number of occupied houses are shown lities and Canton in Table No. XLIII. Details of sex will be found in Table XX of

the Census Report of 1881: Town of Ballabgarh.

Ballabgarh is a town of 5,800 inhabitants, 22 miles from Delhi along the Delhi-Mathrah road, on the east side of the road. It is the head-quarters of a tahsil, and possesses a thána, school, distillery and dispensary. For the purpose of describing the town, it may be divided into two parts, the town proper and the fort outside the town and between it and the main road. The town itself is a collection of mean houses, but has two broad bazaars crossing one another at right angles, and forming a small square in the centre. From these bazaars issue smaller streets, but all at right angles to the main bazaars with a wall at the end of each. The town is said to have derived its regular shape from having been built on the model of Jaipur. There is an encamping ground on the main road. The Municipal Committee consists of eight members appointed by the local Government on the joint recommendation of the Commissioner and Deputy Commis-Its income for the last few years is shown in Table No. XLV, and is derived from an octroi tax. The fort, which is outside the town, contains the palace of the former Rájá. He was hung for lukewarm conduct in the Mutiny, and his estate confiscated. His wife now lives in the town on a pension of Rs. 500 a month. The palace consisted of several houses, of which all except one have fallen to This is a square, two-storeyed building built of white sandstone, with carved doors and a courtyard in the centre. On one side is the tahsil with the treasury, and on the other the Munsiff's Court, and above this the police post house. Outside this is a building now used as a thána. The fort is surrounded by a stone wall about 30 feet high. The town is inhabited mostly by agriculturists, and is said to have fallen off much in importance since the absorption into British territory.

Ballabgarh* is not an ancient town at all. The earliest account of its becoming important shows that in 1705 Gopal Singh, a Tawatia Ját zamíndár of the village Aláwalpur, came over and settled in Síhi near Ballabgarh, having turned out the Tagah cultivators of that place. As he waxed strong by plundering travellers on the Mathrah road, which passes by Sihi, he was able to attack Amjad, the Rajput Chaudhrí, and with the aid of the Gújars of Tigáon to kill him. Murtaza Khán, the local Government officer of Faridabad, tried to make matters quiet by appointing Gopál Singh Chaudhri of the Farídábád parganah, with a cess of one anna in the rupee on the revenue. This was in 1710. In 1711 Gopál Singh died, and was succeeded by his Charandas, seeing how weak the imperial grasp son Charandás. was growing even in the nearer districts, appropriated the revenue. and openly refused to make it over to Murtaza Khán. He was, however, seized, and in 1714 imprisoned by the latter in Faridabad fort, and he remained there some little time till his son Balram, duping

^{*} The name is probably a corruption from Balrámgarh, the fort of Balrám, its founder.

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ments.

Magistrate of Delhi undertaking the charge of the police of the environs of the city (1827). Faridabad meanwhile was left in his lities and Canton. charge, and he was considered responsible for maintaining the public peace on the Mathrah road between the limits of Burhivaka-pul, and Town of Ballabgarb, mauza Pirthala in Palwal. Ram Singh died in 1829, and Nabar Singh, his son, came to power. The earlier years of his reign saw great mischief and intrigue, caused by Abhe Ram and Pirthi Singh, the ministers, through whose mismanagement debts were contracted on account of the Estate. "In 1839 Abhe Ram was dismissed, and "Nawal Singh, the maternal uncle of Nahar Singh, having come into "power, he ejected Pirthi Singh also, and in conjunction with Ram-"parshad, nephew to Deo Kanwar, became the actual ruler, though "all acts continued to be done in the name of Raja Nahar Singh."

> In 1840 Nawal Singh becoming absolute, disputes ran high, and disorganisation increasing, the British Agent was appealed to, and our interference sought. Enquiries were instituted through a special Commissioner, deputed to Ballabgarh, and the management of the territory was experimentally entrusted to Kanwar Madho Singh, a grand-nephew of Raja Bahadar Singh, the first chief (within the time of our influence); but the plan failed, and parganah Faridabad was taken under direct British management. The young Raja however, protested against this arrangement, and as he had attained his majority, and urged his competency to manage his own affairs, the territory was restored to him. Yet, after a long reign, he was implicated in correspondence with the mutineers in 1857, and was hanged. The raj was confiscated, but the Rani dowager, Rani Kishan Kanwar, was allowed to reside in Ballabgarh, and she has recently bought the camindari rights from Government for Rs. 64,500. She herself gets a pension of Rs. 500 a month

Limits of Enu-	Year of Cen-	Persons.	Males.	Femries.
Whole town {	1858 1881	6,251 5,821	3.175 3.114	3,1′+0 2,707
Municipal limits {	1908 1875 1881	6,251 6,671 5,521	001 000 202 000 000 200	047 500 000 500 010 500

The population, as ascertained at the enumerations of 1868 1875, and 1881 is shown in the margin.

It is difficult to ascertain the limits within which the enumerations of 1963 and 1875 were taken The figures for the

population within municipal limits, according to the Census of 1868 are taken from the published tables of the Census of 1875; but it was noted at the time that their accuracy was in many cases doubtful. The Deputy Commissioner wrote as follows in the District Report on the Census of 1881 regarding the decrease of popula-

"In Ballabgarh the rate of mortality was also high, especially during 1872, when it rose to 64 per mille. The population, however, seems soul to have recovered itself, as in 1875 it amounted to 6,671, or 390 more than. in 1868. Between 1875 and 1881 it fell to 5,821, that is, 460 less than it



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1		2	٠.	3	4	5	. с	,	
	DETAILS.		Sire	īlī.	Married.		Whorle,		
<u></u>			Males.	Females.	Males.	Tenndes.	Maler.	Females	
Actual figures for robligious.	All religions Hindus Sikhs Jains Buddhiets Musalmans Christians			144,097 104,523 410 1,433 26,796 825	\$2,707 \$5,494 \$1 \$23 \$3,650 \$29	100,472 100,870 279 1,898 25,899	107,550 128,114 762 1,621 20,270 300	89.877 54,494 62 563 5,270	44,973 52,077 10 75 12,177 C7
Distribution of every 10,000 wouls of each 4150.	All ages 0-10 10-15 15-20 20-25 25-29 23-47 49-50 59-00 Over 69	:: :: :: :: :: ::		4,155 9,508 7,517 4,315 2,545 1,571 087 047 493 418	2,750 9,509 4,419 559 60 83 42 61 84 84	4,520 194 2,009 5,423 6,423 7,102 7,102 7,107 6,752 5,823	5,570 404 5,495 0,211 9,591 0,110 6,203 6,231 3,950 1,720	555 55 557 557 1,576 1,767 2,763 4,242	1,000 51 224 144 1,702 1,702 0,703 1,702 0,703 1,703

NOTE.-These figures are taken from Table No. VI of the Census Report.

Table No. XI, showing BIRTHS and DEATHS.

1	· ·	2	3	} · 4.	5	6	7	s	. 6:	30
-	-	Total i	PIETHT REG	ISTERED.	TOTAL I	DEATHS REA	istered.	Total	L DEATES	F10%
YEARS.		Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Female:	Persons.	Cholcra.	Small-	Fever.
1677 1578 1579 1559 1851		10,641 15,542	5,793 13,701	10,124 22,646	8,717 17,800 23,121 11,441 12,352	7,245 15,574 20,573 2,103 10,570	22,622	4: 416 2 157	763 545 12 1 1 72	8.55 5.75 1.55 15.75 15.75

Note.—These figures are taken from Tables Nos. I, II, VII, VIII, and IX of the Sanitary Report.

Table No. XI A, showing MONTHLY DEATHS from ALL CAUSES.

1	2	3	4	5 .	ō	7
Мохан	1877.	1879.	1579.	1559.	2571.	Total .
January February March April May June July August September October November December	1,105 5/2 1,009 1,105 1,255 1,255 1,255 1,255 1,255 1,550 1,551 1,510 2,741	1.743 1,455 1,445 1,493 2,255 2,255 1,549 1,569 2,515 6,515 7,525 1,534	2,119 1,600 1,442 1,442 2,609 1,609 1,109 3,416 6,451 5,652 5,753 4,551	2,767 1,746 1,541 1,201 1,750 1,800 1,761 1,932 1,932 1,932 1,931 2,930	1,719 1,729 1,720 1,720 1,720 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,724 1,725 1,724 1,725 1,724 1,725 1,726	6,502 7,255 7,255 7,557 7,553 9,476 9,476 9,476 15,734 20,631 20,631 20,631 20,631 20,631
Total	16,672	50,740	40,451	20,545	50,027	300,806 1

North.—These Egiptes are taken from Table No. 111 of the Sanitary Report.

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FIBNURES held direct from Government as they stood in 1878-79.	8 9 10 11 19 13 14 15 16 17	Tahsie Deem. Tansie Sonepar. Tansie Ballabgarm.	Mo, of holders or shrelpolders, arrea, in acrea, arrea, in Mo, of estates, Mo, of holders or acrea, in acrea, and of holders of holders of holders arrea in acrea, and of holders of holders of holders of holders or an acrea, in an acrea, and of holders of holders or an acrea, and of holders of holders of holders of holders.					Piqures not available.					
erom(2 9	TAITS	No. of catates.	·					-			. *	
n Gove	9	j.	Gross area; in	14,256	6,118	43,682	SO,052	165,819	392,598		3,235	4,100	40
t fror	-	Whole District.	No. of holdersor	339	10	2,330	5,632	11,841	53,462		# .	-	. 13
lirec	en	WHOLE	No. of villagos.	Q.	တ	ž	8	169	458		63	. 00	:
eld c	έν		No. of catates.	유	.co.	76	8		493		63	43'	:
Table No. XV, showing TENURES he			NATURE OF TENURE.	A.—Estates not deing village communities, and paving in common (Zamindar). III.—Paping. 1,000 to { Held by individuals or families under the ordinary.	spung 1,000 ru.) * IV.—Pruhig 1,000 ru.) * Pes reviewe and \ As above.	Proprintary cultivating village computers.	,	D.—Bhayachara In which possession is the measure of right in alliands	E.—Mixed'or imper. In which the lands are held partly in severalty and feet paticiars and had being the amount of the share or the or blayedara. extent of land held in severalty.	B.—Granices of Corcrusant not falling under any previous class, and paying revenue direct to Goceryment in the position of :	1.—Proprietors, including individuals rowarded for sorvice or other- wise, but incompasses of theorems waste.	II.—ferrace	(3.—Landholders who have redeemed the revenue and are not members of any village community nor included in any preblow class.

Norm.—These ligiteds are taken from Table No. XXXIII of the Recente Report for 1878-79.

700,635

73,638

810 810

Table No. XVII, showing GOVERNMENT LANDS.

				<u>. </u>				
1,	2	. 3	4	5	.6	7	8	. 2
			Acres he cultirati	eld under ing lauses.		enainirg a	cree.	carly 17.78
	No. of estat	Total acres.	Cultivated.	Unculti-	Under Forest De- partment.	Under other Depart ments.	Under Deputy Commis- sioner.	Averago ye incomo, 15 to 1251-82:
Whole District Tahsil Delhi ,, Sonepat ,, Ballabgarh	22	4,105 4,127 88	::	::		3,519 3,481 38	646 C46	5,446

NOTE. -These figures are taken from Table No. 1X of the Revenue Report of 1881-52.

Table No. XIX, showing LAND ACQUIRED by GOVERNMENT.

Purpose for which acquired.	Acres acquired,	Compensation paid, in rupees.	Reduction of revenue, in rupees.
Roads Canals State Rollways Guaranteed Rallways Miscellaneous	690 4,208 357 313 545 .	15,767 1,78,143 1,08,098 6,01,504 40,264	723 5,696 854 865 457
Total	6,113	9,03,770	7,595

Norr.—These figures are taken from Table No. XI of the Revenue Report.

Table No. XX, showing ACRES UNDER CROPS.

1 .	2	· 3	4 .	5	G	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	: 15	16
ARS,	Total,	Rice.	Wheat.	Jawar.	Bajrn.	Makal.	Jau.	Gram.	Xoth. ·	Poppy.	Tobacco.	Cotton.	Indigo.	Sugareane,	Vegetables.
1870-74 1874-75 1874-76 1876-76 1876-77 1877-78 1879-80 1880-81 1881-82	528,260 532,785 529,451 533,481 533,481 533,755 523,755 542,275 542,275 540,069	32,261 35,200 26,000 27,000 16,400 11,943 12,406 14,599 13,503	108,332 105,056 157,000 150,900 127,355 116,782 125,610 134,093 136,815	47,000 52,020 40,100 24,550 20,753 117,032 127,834 52,039 57,611	43,195	14,500 17,000 15,000 13,900 13,600 0,225 7,497 11,811 11,573	70,016 71,127 60,709 61,220 91,665 6,7535 79,147 82,151 74,803	37,615 36,540 50,700 57,500 84,099 59,391 63,000 50,191 48,312	15,000 12,000 14,000 11,055 2,350 4,672 5,913 6,272 7,413		5,827 7,100 7,472 7,799 4,971 5,032 6,694	20,010 30,005 21,619 24,565 22,310 17,152 10,675 22,901 26,819	163 136 100 100 100 110 269	37,676 88,036 31,831	2,599 2,211
NAME OF TAX	isil.			TARSIL .	AVERAGE:	s for T	HE TWO !	CEARS, F	nost 188	0-81	то 19	91-82.			
Delhi Sonepat Ballabgarh	179,452 197,178 161,657	2,713 11,457	39,013 67,019 29,842	50,285 6,610 17,960	35,834 33,212 20,319	2,410 7,486 -1,796	23,963 8,886 0,632	19,805 16,116 18,359	2,116 4,146 1,550		491 621 6,933	4,011 12,151 7,795		7,010 12,559 515	523 526 1,000
TOTAL	541,267	14,200	105,904	54,855	89,865	11,692	72,451	49,251	7,842		7,013	21,890	310	20.78	3.119

Norn.-These figures are taken from Table No. XLIV of the Administration Report.

Table No. XXIII, showing OCCUPATIONS of MALES.

Total population	• • •	er en			<u></u>			1. 12. 12		
Nature of occupations	1	2	3 .	4	5.	· 1	2 · · · · ·	3	4	. 5
Total population	 		Males			aber.	Noture of commentance			years .
2 Occupation specified 71,506 146,474 217,080 18 Pastorul 253 867 1,1	Namb	Nature of occupations.	Towns.		Total.	MuM	Nature of occupations.	Towns.		Total.
14 Landowners	10 11 12 13 14 15	Occupation specified Agricultural, whether simple or combined. Civil Administration Army Religion Barbers Other professions Monoy-lenders, general traders, pedlars, &c. Dealers in grain and flour Corn grinders, parchers, &c. Confectioners, green-grocers, &c. Carriers and boatmen Landowners	71,506 4,264 3,130 1,255 1,294 1,178 1,894 2,821 2,057 436 2,083 3,187 2,145	146,474 88,346 1,648 72 2,886 7,789 2,090 4,096 721 458 2,106 54,048 22,057	217,080 92,610 4,773 1,327 4,746 8,514 2,092 4,917 6,153 1,157 2,588 54,890 24,202	18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 20 27 28 29 30 81 32	Pastoral Cooks and other servants Water-carriers Sweepers and scavengers Workers in reed, cane, leaves, straw, &c. Workers in leather Boot-makers Workers in wool and pashm """, stik """, cotton """", wood Potters Workers and dealers in gold and silver. Workers in ron General labourers	253 0,903 2,9014 1,528 1,528 1,527 2,590 205 573 2,417 1,480 1,480 1,480 1,480 4,832	867 991 993 5,601 1,217 3,187 140 8 6,074 2,843 2,481 4,481 1,295 7,303	5,000 1,120 7,057 8,009 7,129 2,524 3,975 0,201 405 551, 8,491 4,325 4,447 1,900 12,202 7,077

Nore.—These figures are taken from Table No. XII A of the Census Report of 1881.

Table No.	. ДД	IV, S	μĊΜ	шg .	IYL A.	MOT	AU.	CIOTAL		
1	2	- 3	4	. 5	6	7	8 .	9	10	iı '
	Silk.	Cotton.	Wool.	Other fab- ries.	Paper	Wood	Iron	Brass and copper.	nigs.	Dyeing and manufactur ing of dyes
Tumber of mills and large factorics Tumber of private looms or small	110	3,010	72	·i21	17	1,237	91	n i22,	227	567
works. Number of workmen { Male in large works. { Female Number of workmen in small works	· §24	4,78	168	226	· 116	٠	1,82	438	466	1,204
or independent artisans. Falue of plant in large works Estimated annual out-turn of all works in rupees.	1,83,828		<u>!</u>			<u> </u>	1	13 2,12,770	91,690	1,02,462
	12	. 1	S	14	_	15	16	. 17	18	19
	Leath	cr. com	mon	Oil-pres ing an refining	d n	hmina ad awls.	Car- pets.	Gold, silver, and jewellery.	Other manufactures.	
amber of mills and large factories number of private looms or small	1,8	661	791	48	1	::	85	i,241	1,62	
works. Number of workmen { Male in large works. { Female Number of workmen in small works or independent artisans.			1,987	 .:	7		105	4,024	31,45	54,80
or independent in large works United of plant in large works Estimated annual out-turn of all works in rupees. These figures a		ʻl	4,882	2,06,69	1		14,178	55,00,702	4,03,237	85,75,9

Table No. XXV, showing RIVER TRAFFIC.

1	2	3	4 5	
Trade.		PRINCIPAL MERCHANDISE CARRIED.	Average duration of Voyage in days.	Distance in miles.
From	. To	PRINCIPAL MERCHANDAM CALL	Summer. Winter or low water.	
Bagpat, Zillah Mecrut opposite Jhundpur, tahsil Sonepat Delhi	Delhi Delhi	ifficati Granti Daires tara	4 or 5 days, thr ough the Agra Canial, 10 or 11 days, through the Agra Canal.	20 150 150

Table No. XXVII, showing PRICE of LABOUR.

1	2 3	4 } 5	.6. 7	. E . D	10 11	12 23
	Wases of Las	OUR FER DAY.	CARIT FEB DAT.	Camplaten dut	·P. ners in .	Cress Pating
YEAR.	Sitte!-	Urskillet.	Highest Lowest	Highest, Lowest	fili-hoas fan sa	
-	Highest Lawest	'lighest Lowes'	•		digeore Daniel	
****	1	Rs. A.P. Rs. A.P.	1	Rq. Δ. P.	Rt. A. P.	Es. A. I
1879-73 1-73-74 1878-79 1570-90	0 6 0 0 5 0	0 4 0 0 2 0 0 3 0 0 2 0 0 3 0 0 2 0	1 12 0 1 12 0 0 14 0	0 \$ 0 0 6 (0 \$ 0 6 \$ 0	5 12 0 5 12 0	0 % 0 0 % 0 0 % 0
1516-51 1531-52	0 6 6 0 5 6		0 11 0	0 8 0	0 15 0 2 15 0 3 15 0	6 5 6

Norn.-There figures are token from Tokie No. XLVIII of the Administration Report.

Table No. XXVIII, showing REVENUE COLLECTED.

7			2	2	4	5	C	7	ļ	ÿ.
4770	TPIP		YEAR. Fixed Flucture ing and Misself Tribs			Tribute, Local	Excisp.		Stamp'r.	7.35
11.	.15.		Revenue.	Revenue. Land Revenue.		ruie	Spirits.	Drugs.		Ba. Bad
. 155°-(0) 1570-70 1570-71 1570-71 1570-74 1570-74 1570-77 1570-77 1570-79 1470-70 1570-71		** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** ** **	\$770,051 \$775,755 \$51,475 \$51,475 \$71,015 \$71,015 \$71,015 \$75,755 \$75,755 \$75,755 \$75,755 \$75,755 \$75,755	12,514 19,155 9,118 7,251 8,677 10,251 6,625 16,650 12,650 7,252 6,475 61,670	:::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::	643100294155255 64310029415525 84632552555 8463255	हरू के इस्ट्रिक्ट में इस्ट्रिक्ट के स्ट्रिक्ट के स्ट्रिक्ट के स्ट्रिक्ट के स्ट्रिक्ट के स्ट्रिक्ट के स्ट्रिक्ट	#166 #166 #166 #166 #166 #166 #166 #166		# ************************************

Norg.—These figures are taken from Table No. XLIV of the Revenue Report. The following revenue is each is the example Taxen, Fors, Cossian Constant

Table No. XXIX, showing REVENUE DERIVED from LAND.

1	2	ä	4	5	G	7	g	ů	10	n		1::
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TEAB.	nd revenue (de	n fart lend r drek	જ્જ્લાગુર of ત્રીપુષ્ટકૃતી ૧૬ છે.	of ww. Pres 1:5	trant.	ffng 4 ifverta	गैएटी प्रशाह रूत आब	14		7.2		
		1	H27.5 (21.13		100	# S4	10 To		15	.:	3.7
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\$25.57 k \$0 \$1.77 \\ \$1.77 \tau_{10} \tau_{10} \tau_{10} \\ \$1.77 \tau_{10} \\ \$1.77 \tau_{10} \\ \$1.77 \\ \$1.7	1. 建建筑。		2,67		:	-:	1	.:	2 / 14,			1
- \$4.5 % A		7 (73) (e (70) (p e)	1,73			1,7 1/2 (1,7 1/2)		:				71.4
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tribings.	in the same	. (- 2	1 4.	:	į ·	••	17.1.7				نامچىدىدەر،	Marie & Secretar

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Table No. XXXII, showing SALES and MORTGAGES of LAND.

1		2	: 3	1 4	5	6	7	3	3.	1 ::
	7			5112	s or La	NP.	****	21.79		er a grander
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		io of area.	Area of land in arrea.	Furel name y	No i	Area o Logi i:		Sec. 2.	Arro Al Livila 12-NX	TO THE
Destrict Frienes.			j	-		-				*
Total eff your-1904-1916 1973-74		572	5,275	1.50.213		!	:	770	$\{n, r\}$	i skati
Total et 4 years—1974/75 to 1977/79	·	6.5	1,521	50,752	19	1.627	73.5%	Cal	1.50	11.65
707-07 3577-4 15-0-5 1151-1	i	26 43 71 69	239 625 610 578	15,500 16,600 16,100 52,551	25 C	1.537	50,070 19,790 75,635 47,637	67 79 15 192	6.4	\$ 10 150 \$ 10 050 \$ 10 050 \$ 10 050
Tangue Tetals for C trans— 1:50-81 to 1931. Taken Deckt S weight Enlarged	-52. 	19 55 29	706 271 220	11,724 24,153 7,69	・ で か ル	\$5.0 \$1,5.0 \$1,5.0	57,432 15,215 15,273	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	337	220
		17	12	13	24	15	16	17	1<	ţ,
	M	eltiön	ans of Le el oles,	ind.—Cen-		Renev	naichtur.	Hours v	ri Band	
YEAR.		Nen	-Apresel	vrista.		ricultyr			f;r:ri.r:(r, rigin,
	# en	n. nf	An-ref lui lui refus	Most,—ge modey.	No. of	Are lof log lin acres.	Hortmen musty.	760, 10 1910 14.	And A lin i in way o	Matters 6 100 A
District Flores. Fetal els gours—1808-014-0170-74							4.0			,
Total 114 3 1 21 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 -		417	ក់រួមទ	1,53,767	5-5	2,770		**	1. 1	
1-41-53 10-41 1-2-1-40 1-2-1-40		100 113 103 103	1,2° 1,414	42,974 56,112 47,632 58,073	44 92 91 93 93	2'0 151 110 2,55		11	10)	0.318 6.612 2.017 21.413
Tan are Totale for 2 trans. Taken from Total from Total from Taken from T	54. ::	155 101	1,5% 3,3 5,3 5,2	51,500 41,501 21,112	:: *:	157	7,615 17,155 1,155	47 9:	; i < ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ;	\$ 5 15 3 4 5 15

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Table No. XXXIII, showing SALE of STAMPS and RECISTRATION of DEEDS.

			y the grand and principal and interpretations of the control of th	
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defined to the ma	Titt-trovilligh	MITTER OF	openations of the most alion bedances	
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		•	The state of the s	*
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Table No. XXXVI, showing DISTRICT FUNDS.

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	Anne	lineone in	гирыя.			Annaal ex	penditure i	a rapes.		
year.	Provincial rates.	Mlscelland- ous.	Total in- come.	Estublish- ment.	District post, and arboricul- ture.	Education.	Medleal.	Mecellane. ous.	Public Works.	Tellas er.
1874-75 1875-76 1876-77 1877-78 1878-79 1879-80 1850-81 1881-82	82,503 73,014 80,515	2,504 1,616 3,961	103,529 65,761 92,756 56,295 94,392 57,454 60,490 54,476	2,503 2,601 2,415 1,925 2,093 2,400 2,421 2,490	*4,164 1,590 570 707 1,074 945 1,075 1,458	10,0%2 11,423 72,980 10,2%7 13,9%0 14,6%0 10,410 13,992	263 1,935 3,599 3,978 4,238 0,946 4,034 4,475	1,740 120 120 200 170 541 740 164	10,450 10,625 01,225 -01,573 24,045 01,126 20,127 38,728	TO STATE OF THE ST

Note.—These figures are taken from Appendices A and B to the Annual Review of District Four operations.

**District Post excluded.

Table No. XXXVII, showing GOVERNMENT and AIDED SCHOOLS

1	2	3	4	5	G	7	8	ç	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	15	19	(c)	:1
		HIG	пsc	ono	ols.			2(1)	DDLE	SOH	OOLS	١.			PPI:	AAR	r sc	HOOL	:	e and provident
		Exc	LISN.			ena. Can.		Enc	Lisn.	٠	VER:	acul a		Esq	.1551.			Vsi,"+	CL1 %	
Year.	Govern- Aided. Govern-				ern• ent.	Ai	તલ.	Gore	rament.		teru- •nt.	Ai	de t.	$G\gamma f$	eninien!	1	3. <u>1.</u>			
	Schools, Scholars, Schools, Schools, Schools, Schools,		Scholara.	Schools.	Schofara.	Selvols.	Scholara.	Rehools.	Scholara.	Schools.	Scholara.	Rehants.	Scholara.	Melionia.	Rehalars.	Schoole.	H. Sh. C.A.			

FIGURES FOR BOYS.

1977-78 1974-79 1974-79 1970-51 1891-80	1 1 1 1 1 1	55 55 55 55 55 55 55	1 1	277 125 0 4 4	::	::	01012112	293 845 145 125 107	1315151	85 75 85 85 85 80 7	0 0 0 0 1 1	914 931 115 152 125	ું છાય છ	677 612 678	5 555 5 554 5 541	40 40 41 41 41	1,51° 17 1,53° 27 1,53° 27 1,53° 27 2,15° 27	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

FIGURES FOR GIRLS.

·	<u></u>		 			 	 									• • • • • • •
1677-76 1674-79 1674-79 1674-79 16-3-51 15-1-62	:::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::	::	 	:: ::	•••	 ::	 	::	::	::	•	1 1 1 1 1	13.73.815	* 21 m m m m	60 177 78 177 46 177 161 1 8 1	611 717 717 717

N. R.—Since 1979-50, in the case of both Government and Aided Schools, these scholar only who have completed the Middle School course are shown in the returns as attending Hode's hools, and there can sho keep completed the Primary behavior are shown as attending Middle Schools. Press in a total processing the Upper Primary Department were included in the returns of Middle Schools in the control of the Upper and Lower Primary Department, which is instantions in the following the intending both the Upper and Lower Primary Department, which is instantions on the following the intending both the Upper and Lower Primary Department, which is instantion on the following the intending height the Middle and Primary Preparation at Middle Schools. In the case of Aircraft Instantion Legislates, the leg in the returns of Department Schools, if appeting the primary is a stantial Schools in the returns of Primary Department then the place of one at one as for a month of Department of English Schools, whether Government or Alled, that were formerly to design any them also have a first and are now interned as English Schools. Hence the returns before 197-55 do not affect the many associations with the statistics of a Primary years.

Table No. XL, showing CRIMINAL TRIALS.

		<u> </u>				
	1	2	3	4	5	, 6
· ,	DETAILS.	1678.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.
Persons tried.	Brought to trial Discharged Acquitted Convicted Committed or referred	4,920 1,178 1,154 2,599	4,174 1,299 855 1,964 24	4,521 1,189 1,011 2,801	5,229 1,785 1,021 2,383 42	5,155 2,021 947 2,131 46
Canon dis-	Summons cases (regular) " (summary) Warrant cases (regular) " (summary) Total cases disposed of	3,261	2,544	3,009	1,705 142 778 410 8,125	1,553 167 906 315 2,940
need to	Death Transportation for life for a term Penal servitude	: . ::	3	1 3 3	2	2 2 1
Number of persons sentenced to	Fine under Rs. 10	1,367 216 15 5	1,103 177 28 7	1,517 210 18 17 1	1,661 216 34 8	1,375 206 22 5
mbor of 1	Imprisonment under 6 months , 6 months to 2 years , over 2 years Whipping	561 196 43 836	890 184 25 211	323 / 141 82 130	215 120 19 147	278. 116 17 103
N	Find sureties of the peace Recognisance to keep the peace Give sureties for good behaviour	 20 171	25 83	16 25 96	28 26 93	35 129

Note:—These figures are taken from Statements Nos. III and IV of the Oriminal Reports for 1878 to 1880, and Nos. IV d V of the Criminal Reports for 1881 and 1882.

Table No. XLI, showing POLICE INQUIRIES.

												٠.		I	
1	2	3,	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	18	14	15	16
	Nu	mber of	cases i	nquire	d into.	Nu		persor ummor		sted or	N	umber q	f perso	nė cosiv	içted.
Nature of offence.	1877	1878	1879	1880	1531	1877	1878	1879	1880	1881	187	1878	1879	1880	1881
Rioting or unlawful	9	. 4	Б	. 5	. 8	124	80	28	39	,	82	29	21	\38	44
Murder and attempts	8	. 7	. 6	8	6	14	9	, 16	6		9	. 3	7	. 5	· 2
erious offences the person	. 35	36	22	. 21	23	.156	64	55	54	108	108	44	. 32	48	55
serious offences	386	553	447	852	359	192	508	211	204	170	142	220	. 151	-141	108
I minor offences minst the person le theft	39 . 52	- 38 - 69	.27	.40 36	25	44 32	31 76	. 40 . 26	48 27	54 27	27 25	22 61	19 -24	29 20	31 19
against property.	931	1,322	925	599	493	778	1,057	734	521	441	602	780	551	397	317
otal cognizable of- fences	1,507	2,036	1,476	1,094	961	1,280	1,550	1,103	891	886	931	1,144	790	647	589
Rioting, unlawful as- sembly, affray Offences relating to	5		. 3	. 2	6	24		19	· 17	39	19-	`	14	9	35
marriage	1				.1.	2		••	••	ː••.	ļ, •• <u> </u>	•••	. : '		••
Total non-cognizable offences	65	- 81	55	74	. 70	124	100	89	· 114	134	. 83	76	57.	62	103
GRAND TOTAL of of-	1,572	2,117	1,531	1,165	1,031	1,404	1,680	1,192	1,005	1,020	1,014	1,220	847	700	691

Note.-These figures are taken from Statement A of the Police Report.

Table No. XLIV, showing BIRTHS and DEATHS for TOWNS.

·	-									,		·: ·
1	. 2	3	4	5	6	. 7	8	.9	10	11.	12	13 -
TOWN	Sex.	Total popu- lation by the Census of	Tota		e regiet he year		cring	Total	lealts reg	istered di	ring the	¥£2
TOWN.		1975.	1877.	1578.	1579.	1850.	1551.	1877.	1578.	1579.	1539.	1551.
Delhi { ,, Suburbs { Sonepat {	Males Females Males Females Males Females	62,040 53,952 24,531 29,020 7,040 6,557	3,151 3,014 1,271 1,199 242 176	2,857 2,835 979 948 244 178	2,164 2,073 610 485 166 144	2,943 £95 £15		3,076 2,696 553 659 176 126	5,515 5,692 1,553 1,572 152 160	4,943 4,931 + 1,631 977 853 272	- 9,450 2,821 638 525 - 103 - 133	

Note.—These figures are taken from Table No. LVII of the Administration Report.

Table No. XLV, showing MUNICIPAL INCOME.

. 1 ,	2	3	4	5	. 6
Name of Municipality.	Dellis.	Honoput	Ballabgarts,	Varklabad.	Najatgarlı.
Class of Municipality	I.	IIL	. m.	m.	111.
1570-71	1,93,272	6,121	2,619	2,217	1,625
-1671-72	2,39,830	7,510	3,045	3,146	1,593
1572-73	2,22,623	7,843	3,924	2,694	1,034
1873-74	2,60,257	. 6,410	8,233	2,540	2,782
1674-75	2,79,673	10,416	3,703	3,672	2,255
1875-7G	2,65,775	1,958	2,044	3,600	. 6,005
1676-77	2,05,070	2,116	. 3,352	2,915	9,211
1577-78	2,25,552	2,445	3,505	` 8,490	2,652
1576-79	2,13,631	2,099	£,149°	2,661	7,272
1679-89	2,25,683	10,485	5,623	2,347	2,043
1650-61	2,71,958	11,495	4,015	2,720	2,723
1851-52	2,76,550	11,505	3,992	3,-51	2,665.
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Table No. XI.VI, chowing DISTANCIES	11 Million to the state of the					nh,	31 33 14 n lil 10 Mudipum,
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